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ABSTRACT

The impact that mass media has had on secondary school children is stressed in this curriculum guide. Contents include a rationale for media education, major assumptions, aims, objectives, suggested learning experiences, and evaluation of mass media. A 94-item bibliography plus a list of primary and secondary student texts are included. (DS)

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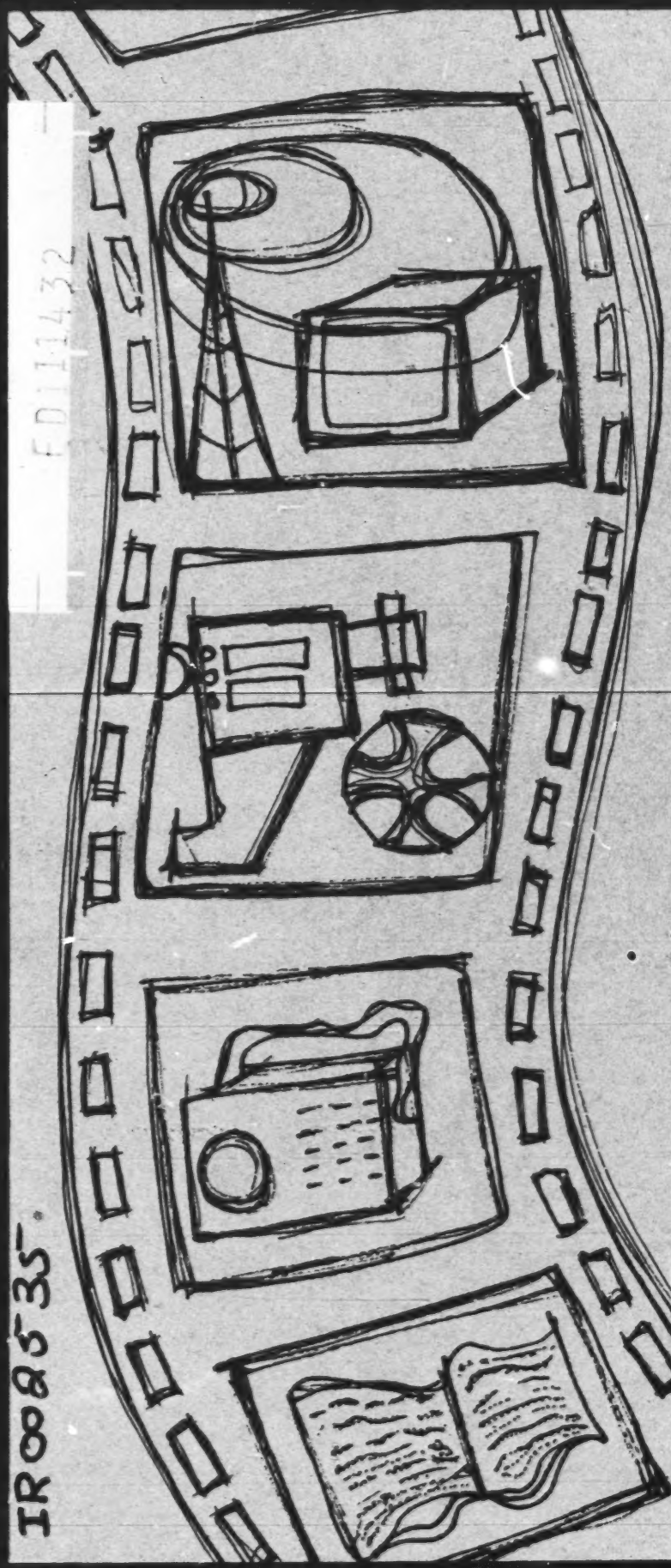

Curriculum Guidelines for
Secondary Schools
Years 7 – 12

MASS MEDIA EDUCATION

Kelvin B. Canavan
Catholic Education Office
Sydney.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
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MASS MEDIA EDUCATION

Kelvin B. Canavan
Catholic Education Office
Sydney.

MAY, 1975

Illustrations by Sister Susan Daily, I.B.V.M.

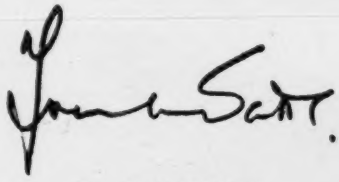
FOREWORD

23/4/1975

To today's children there is nothing particularly wonderful about radio and television or, indeed, about any form of the mass media. Those of us who have observed the ever growing web of communications which envelops us will probably never cease to wonder at the ease with which we call in music for our enjoyment not only from all parts of our own country but even from other parts of the world. The sight of man on the moon is to us a never-to-be-forgotten experience. But young people do not look on it that way. They accept any form of the mass media as normality and would wonder if it were to be taken away from them. In particular, life without television they would reject as quite intolerable.

It follows, therefore, that those of us who are teachers are flying in the face of reason if we fail to appreciate the influence the mass media has upon young minds, if we perpetually disregard the messages which radio and television bring to the notice of those who are in our classes, if we think what we have to say has any more validity to our students than the messages from "the box", in the press or on the screen. Yet there are those who, fearing the power of the mass media, refuse to acknowledge its presence in their classrooms, believing or hoping that if they ignore it in their teaching it will some how or other go away or, at least, lose its grip upon the young minds with which they seek to communicate.

Some years ago in the context of the Australian College of Education, I met Brother Kelvin Canavan whose thoughts obviously ran along lines similar to mine and who was then engaged in writing a set of guidelines for teachers in primary schools to help them to bring the mass media into their classrooms in a positive way. Now, after further study overseas he has gone further and developed his thesis by extending his guidelines into the secondary school and those who read this current work will not only themselves gain a new insight into the influence of radio, television, film and the press but also find a strategy outlined to help them to link these forces into the everyday work of their students and bring a new relevance into their teaching.



FRANK WATTS
DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
AUSTRALIAN BROADCASTING COMMISSION

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1.0 A Rationale for Media Education in the Secondary School

The time has come to introduce into the primary and secondary schools of Australia a new subject that recognises the role of the mass media in our society and aims to help students in all years to be appreciative, discriminating and critical listeners, viewers and readers. This new subject may appropriately be called "Mass Media Education." *

The mass media in recent years have emerged as powerful forces for the education and socialization of young Australians. Few people remain outside the orbit of media influence while most spend considerable time reading the press, viewing film and television and listening to the radio. Yet, the majority of people are not receiving adequate help to develop an appreciation of the media, and educational agencies show only scattered interest in the problem. Today, the literacy skills taught in schools, should be extended to include the visual and audio areas made so crucial by the advent of the electronic media. If schools are to maintain the claim that they prepare students to take their place in society, they must begin to equip them with skills essential to the intelligent handling of the mass media.

The idea of introducing Mass Media Education into Australian schools has been occasioned by the growing realisation that the mass media are significant forces in the lives of most Australians. This awareness has been fostered by: (1) research findings on the exposure of Australians to television and other media; (2) the growing interest of teachers, parents and researchers in the impact of the media, especially on young people; (3) the continuing growth of a powerful media industry in Australia; (4) the knowledge that parents are generally not able to help their children become critical and discriminating in their use of the media; (5) the movement of Boards of Secondary Studies to encourage schools to make provision in their curriculum for a wider range of courses based on new areas of interest; (6) the Decree on Social Communications of the Second Vatican Council; and (7) the statement on media education made by the Australian Bishops' Conference in September, 1972, asking all Catholic schools to begin media education as soon as a curriculum was available.

1.1 Exposure to the Mass Media

All but a handful of Australians are exposed to television, film, press and radio from a very early age. The present population of approximately 13.27 million persons possesses 11.1 million radios and 4.4 million television sets. Approximately 96 per cent of Australians live in a dwelling with at least one television set. Radio penetration in the country is 99.7 per cent and in the cities it is almost 100 per cent. Sales of newspapers in Australia exceed 4.5 million daily. [1]

Television viewing by school students appears to reach a peak during the first years of secondary school. Thomas and Lang (1965) found that Form One students in Victoria viewed in excess of 1,200 hours in a single year while Powell (1971) found that Form Two students in the same state averaged slightly more than 1,300 viewing hours per year. In a comparative study in San Francisco, Schramm *et al.* (1961) found that students in Grade 8 viewed almost 1,200 hours per year. After Grade 8 these students tended to spend less time with the television. Thomas and Lang (1965) provide figures from Form One onward which tend to support the assertion that television viewing reaches a peak during the early years in secondary school and then steadily declines.

TABLE 1

Mean Hours per week spent watching Television for Boys and Girls Forms 1 to 6*

	Form 1	Form 2	Form 3	Form 4	Form 5	Form 6
Day Students (Boys)	23.9	22.8	20.8	17.4	12.5	10.9
Day Students (Girls)	22.2	21.5	18.7	16.7	11.2	6.4

* Taken from Thomas and Lang (1965)

* In this study the term "Mass Media Education" will be used to denote a school curriculum concerned with the process of studying and understanding the mass media.

The decline in television viewing among adolescents appears to be accompanied by an increase in their use of the radio. The average teenager spends 2.75 hours each day listening to the radio. [2]

While children's television viewing tends to peak in the first years of secondary school, research findings indicate that from a very early age children are viewing a great deal of television. Results of a study conducted in five states by the author (Canavan, 1973) and involving 47,175 students in Grades 4 - 7 in Catholic primary schools indicated that upper primary school children were viewing an average of 2.33 hours of television on school days.

TABLE 2
Hours of Daily TV Viewing (Mon. - Thurs.) of Children in Australian Catholic Primary Schools (Grades 4-7): 1971 - 1973

Hours	0 - 1	1 - 2	2 - 3	3 - 4	4 - 5	5 - 6	Total
Number of Children	11,668	10,840	8,562	6,851	6,205	3,049	47,175*
%	24.7%	23.0%	18.1%	14.3%	13.2%	6.7%	100%

Average: 2.33 hours daily

* This represented approximately 55.66% of the children enrolled in the upper primary grades in the 5 states surveyed.

In another study involving parents of upper primary pupils in Sydney Catholic schools the author (Canavan, 1974) found that parents estimated that the children averaged 2.48 hours of television on school days. As the time spent viewing on weekends and holidays is generally greater than on school days, it is estimated that these primary pupils average in excess of 1,000 hours of television in a year. In Australia, primary pupils spend less than 1,100 hours in school each year.

TABLE 3
Comparison of hours per year primary children spent in class with those spent watching television at home.

In Classroom	1,040 hours is the maximum
Viewing T.V. at home	1,000 hours is the **approximate** average*

* This figure is based on information contained in Table 2.

A major study of the television habits of very young children in Australia remains to be done, but it is the author's opinion that the present pattern in Australia is similar to that in the United States. In a study involving nearly 25,000 American parents, Barcus (1973) found that by the age of three American children were averaging 1,000 hours of television annually. Barcus found little variation in viewing hours among children between the ages of three and eleven.

Primary and secondary students also spend considerable time reading the press. In a study of 5th and 6th grade students attending Catholic schools in Sydney in 1972, the author (Canavan, 1972) found that 43 per cent were reading something in the daily newspaper on any given day. About half of these daily readers were reading news stories. The same survey revealed that 46 per cent of the students in the sample read comics on any given day.

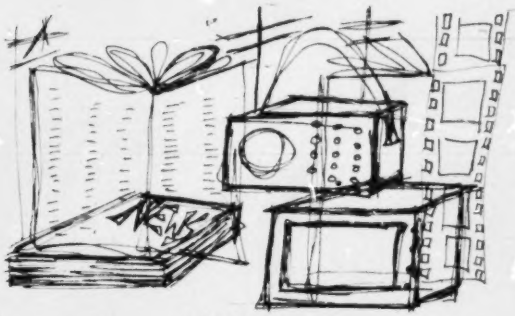
TABLE 4
Survey of Reading Habits of Fifth and Sixth Grade Pupils*

QUESTIONS	"YES" RESPONSES	
	BOYS	GIRLS
Did You read something in a newspaper in the previous 24 hours?	47%	38%
Did You read a news item in a newspaper in the previous 24 hours?	26%	20%
Did You read a sporting item in a newspaper in the previous 24 hours?	25%	8%
Did You read comics in the previous 24 hours?	50%	42%

* 1,955 boys and 1,699 girls were included in this survey conducted in Catholic schools in the Archdiocese of Sydney on 8th-9th February, 1972.

Considering also the time spent reading magazines and visiting the cinema it is obvious that the average Australian child and young adolescent spends considerably more time with the mass media than he does attending class. It would appear safe to hypothesise that only sleep occupies a greater proportion of the average student's life — between kindergarten and middle secondary — than do the mass media.

This massive exposure to the mass media is certainly not limited to children. Adults in Australia also spend a large proportion of their time



with the media. Australian Broadcasting Control Board research in 1969 revealed that 41 per cent of adults in Sydney watch more than 3 hours of television each day. Figures published by the Australian Radio Advertising Bureau show that 87 per cent of all people over ten years of age listen to commercial radio, and these people average 3.28 hours per day.

All this exposure to mass media must have a significant impact on Australians — young and old. What follows is an attempt to assess the significance of that impact and to examine the implications for education with particular reference to curriculum construction.

1.2 Impact of the Mass Media

Identification of the impact of the mass media on people is a complex task. There are extensive research studies on the subject and in an attempt to give some structure to the examination of the literature the studies have been loosely grouped into four broad categories: (1) studies taking a general systems perspective, (2) studies taking a stimulus-response perspective, (3) studies of television as an industry, and (4) studies which focus on the role of parents in children's television behaviour. These categories are not exclusive and some studies could be placed in a number of categories.

A General Systems Perspective

When considering the impact of the mass media on people, one should not think simply in terms of hours viewed, particular programmes watched and newspapers read by individuals. This information may be of some use, but as television and the other media, to a lesser extent, permeate the culture, one needs to consider media effects from a sufficiently broad perspective that will provide an overview of the total impact on the people and their way of life. By adopting a general systems rationale such an overview may be obtained. Working within a general systems framework, one views culture as a network of interrelated sub-systems that are inherently linked and that are in constant interaction with each other. Change in one sub-system leads to change in other sub-systems and change at the individual level will lead to change at the societal level. In analysing media-effects studies in terms of general systems theory the focus is on the whole (culture) when considering a given part (television).

The popular concept of communication as process tells us that meaning is not inherent in the message but exists in the transaction between the sender and the receiver. Hence, communication does not occur until the receiver assigns some meaning to the context and content of the sender's message. This is not to say that information cannot have an objective existence apart from the communicator or the audience. But information is not communication; rather it is a stimulus or cause of communication. An appreciation of communication as process, together with a general systems perspective, will lead one to see television and the other mass media as systems within a larger system, namely culture. These mass media are in constant interaction with other systems — the viewers, their social behaviour, their cultural symbols, their economic and political systems — and should not be studied in isolation.

A systems and process approach to media effects study does not permit one to isolate particular variables in order to explain communication phenomena in terms of cause and effect. The treatment of messages by the media, interest level and audience disposition are examples of variables that are in constant interaction with each other as well as with a host of other variables. The whole process, which operates in space and time, is best viewed as non-linear, ongoing and circular.

A systems approach to media study has been preferred to an approach based on the stimulus-response paradigm which pursues communication study in linear terms. The bulk of media research available today is from a stimulus-response perspective and despite elaborate attempts to isolate and control variables, the studies do not provide us with an appreciation of the total function of the media in the culture. However, the better stimulus-response type studies, when taken collectively, can be used to support a general overview of media effects on the culture.

There is a growing body of communication scholars working within this general systems paradigm. The charismatic McLuhan, who has done a great deal to popularize this systems approach to media study, focuses attention on the impact of the media on the social system as a whole. Taking a distant perspective McLuhan believes that the mass media are doing a good deal more than transmitting messages. They are altering the very essence of our culture by creating "new languages with new and unique powers of expression." [3] Developing this idea McLuhan writes:

> Historically, the resources of English have been shaped and expressed in constantly new and changing ways. The printing press changed, not only the quantity of writing, but the character of language and the relations between author and public. Radio, film, TV pushed written English towards the spontaneous shifts and freedom of the spoken idiom. They aided us in the recovery of intense awareness of facial language and bodily gesture. [4]

By drawing attention to the more global effects of the mass media in our culture McLuhan has succeeded in getting people to consider alternate ways of approaching media study. By adopting a sufficiently wide perspective that permits the whole, and not just the parts, to be seen McLuhan argues that the communications revolution is transforming our culture at an unprecedented rate.

This complex interrelationship between the media and the culture has also been explored by Goldsen at Cornell University. Television, Goldsen believes, exercises a powerful, formative influence on a country's culture. Possessing the power to legitimize, television is in a position to help define or create behavioural norms, to show what is acceptable for the culture at a particular point of time. For Goldsen, television content is both a product and producer of culture. As a producer of culture it has some effect on what people do, say and think. It affects the language and symbols the people use, the fashions they admire, the sports they follow. It also affects social relationships. More importantly, television affects the attitudes, values and beliefs of people, especially young people.

Goldsen rejects the view that television content is essentially determined by public demand. She believes that television organizes tastes rather than responds to them and the choices people make are limited by what is made available by the stations. If we accept this view of television we should remember — as did the March Hare in *Alice in Wonderland* — that if we do not actively try to get what we like, we shall end up liking what we get. The implications of this observation will be developed later in this chapter.

The television networks and their stations beam programmes and commercials into the total airspace of the country, and Goldsen believes that people are influenced whether they watch television or not. Developing this line of thought Goldsen explains:

> . . . our children do not have to take drugs to be affected by the drug culture; they do not have to listen to rock music to be affected by rock-culture. Our black children do not have to experience a racial insult to be affected by racism. Well, it is my contention that neither do our children have to watch a given television program to be affected by its mass transmission. [5]

The adolescent, in particular, will be influenced by what his peers have seen and read and heard.

The work of Goldsen complements that of McLuhan and adds considerably to our understanding of the function of the media in society. Working from a general systems perspective she has managed to study the media without disaggregating the social system. She has provided us with a conceptual framework that incorporates all the variables in the communication process.

This general systems approach to media effects study has also been followed by Gerbner (1972), Condry (1972) and Carpenter (1972). Gerbner (1972) studied the symbolic content of the environment and concluded that modern communications are transforming the environment at an unprecedented rate. The rate of change is now so rapid that successive generations are now being specialized in very different environments and in very different ways. Gerbner explains:

> In only two decades of massive national existence television has transformed the political life of the nation, has changed the daily habits of our people, has moulded the style of the generation, made over-night global phenomena out of local happenings, redirected the flow of information and values from traditional channels into centralized networks reaching into every home. In other words it has profoundly affected what we call the process of socialization, the process by which members of our species become human. [6]

In developing this theme Gerbner makes the point, as do McLuhan and Goldsen, that the mass media today have the power to mass-produce messages that have the potential to create mass publics and thus alter the traditional process of socialization. He writes:

> Never before have so many people in so many places shared so much of a common system of messages and images — and the assumptions about life, society, and the world that the system embodies — while having so little to do with creating the system. In sum, the fabric of popular culture that relates the elements of existence to one another and shapes the common consciousness of what is, what is important, what is right and what is related to what else is now largely a manufactured product. [7]

He is quick to point out, however, that one always communicates more things — or different things — than one is aware of. Thus a commercial featuring a pain reliever, to cite an example, communicates a whole range of different messages to different people. Some will probably get the intended message, others may get a mes-

sage contained in the underlying assumptions of the commercial and still others could be expected to get a distorted message.

Looking more specifically at children's television Condry (1972) has followed a similar line of research, addressing himself to the question of attitudes and values. Making the point that researchers have only recently begun to examine television in terms of cultural impact, he begins his study by looking at the needs of children and their intellectual development and concludes that the effects of television need to be considered in the light of the ecology of childhood. Today, Condry believes, this ecology is out of balance as a result of rapid social and cultural change and will need to be carefully considered when designing studies to determine the impact of television. Dismissing, for the most part, children's television as "an endless parade of mindless drivel," Condry points out that any distortion is harmful for young people if it is consistent and not counteracted by other more realistic influences.

Carpenter (1972), a disciple of McLuhan, also views the media according to general systems theory. Basing his observations on experiences in many countries he continually explains how a change in one element of a communication system will lead to changes in the whole system. Hence, to study the effects of television or radio one needs to look at their impact on the whole culture.

These five researchers have argued for the necessity of adopting a global or systems approach to media effects study. They emphasize the interrelationship among variables and describe how the mass media affect an entire culture. In a country saturated with mass media these effects are considerable and can be seen throughout the culture. The whole process of education and socialization is influenced by this powerful force. The educational implications of these effects will be considered in the final section of this chapter.

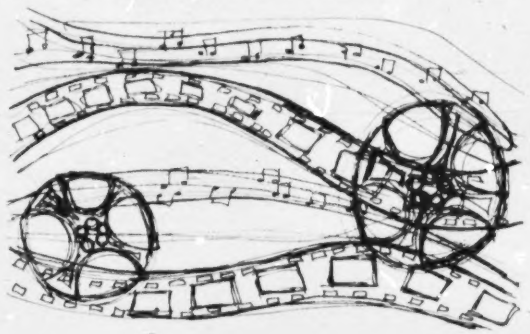
A Stimulus-Response Perspective

The bulk of media effects research in the last decade has been conducted from a stimulus-response perspective and has generally attempted to manipulate variables to establish causal relationships. The value of this approach to research is restricted by the fact that human behaviour and personality development are dependent on many interrelated variables and it is a near insuperable task to isolate the influences of television, film, press or radio. However, if we examine the findings of some of the more substantial stimulus-response oriented studies from our general systems perspective, we can build up a more complete picture of the function of the media in the culture.

In 1971 the annotated bibliography in the *Television and Social Behavior* series listed approximately 250 studies dealing with the impact of television on children in many countries. Since then research has continued in the United States and the impetus for substantial and expensive studies has come from the three television networks, pressure groups such as Action for Children's Television and the Council on Children, Media and Merchandising, and from the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) and the Federal Communications Commission (FCC). It is beyond the scope of this chapter to review all these studies, but an attempt will be made to pinpoint the highlights from a cross-section that appears to have particular relevance for Australian educators in the 1970s.

Television research in Australia has been limited to viewing patterns and in order to consider the effects of exposure to this medium it will be necessary to draw on research conducted in the United States. Australian and United States television are similar in many respects. Both countries have approximately 96 per cent of homes with at least one television set and children from these homes average in excess of 1,000 hours television each year. Both countries have three commercial networks and programming content is frequently similar. It appears safe to assume that, in general terms, many United States television studies would have implications for Australia and could be helpful in formulating an overview of the impact of television on viewers in this country.

Since television first appeared researchers have examined both its direct and indirect effects on child and adult behaviour. McDonagh (1950) found decreases in the amount of reading and conversing, as well as in radio listening and movie attendance after the purchase of a television set. Maccoby (1951) established that children were substituting television for use of other mass media, for some of their play time and for time previously spent on household tasks. Jenks (1955) found that television created many problems in the home. These included conflicts over programme choice, interference with children's bedtime, watching too many programmes, and interference with meals, family outings, living room activities, chores and homework. But Schramm and Roberts (1971), after reviewing two decades of studies, concluded that television



appeared to have had a very minor effect on the school work of children in the United States and England. They found that when intelligence is taken into account there is little relationship between amount of viewing and school results, and the child who watches television instead of completing his homework would probably be doing something else if television were not available.

The use of television as an escape mechanism has been studied at some length. Maccoby (1954) proposed that a child's interest in television may be symptomatic of a need for vicarious satisfaction when the child is frustrated in his attempts to achieve satisfaction in real life. Children, Maccoby concluded, may find it easier to obtain this satisfaction through fantasy in television than through normal social relationships. Pearlin (1959) continued this line of research with adults and concluded television offers relief to anxious individuals. It provides them with an opportunity to withdraw periodically from unpleasant situations. Forsey (1963) theorized that people watch television in an unconscious effort to resolve conflicts about personal development and social adjustment, rather than to be entertained. While supporting these findings Katz and Foulkes (1962) found that the media may also strengthen one's position in social relationships. Children, for example, who are attached to their parents may use television to draw themselves closer to the family. Wiebe (1969) examined the psychological factors in audience behaviour and found an inverse relationship between the numbers of viewers and the cultural merit of programmes. This led to the hypothesis that the medium, by offering immediate need gratification and minimizing intellectual effort, attracts viewers who do not want to become involved. Wiebe concluded that people prefer a medium where they are excused from acknowledging others and which presents them with symbols and images but never real persons.

Glynn (1956) suggested that television fosters traits of passivity and dependence and unconsciously shapes the viewer's character. He cited several cases of mentally ill individuals for whom television is a mother substitute, satisfying childish needs and promoting regression to infancy. Clark (1969) saw television as a cause of social conflict and a method of controlling it. Communications, he found, function to maintain the established social order and are therefore crucial to the understanding of social conflict.

To cite the findings of two more typical research studies may help to make the point that television has some positive influence on children. Stein, *et al.* (1972) established that television can play an important role in the social development of children. They write:

> Our findings indicate that the themes of cooperation, persistence in difficult tasks, tolerance of frustration and delay, and verbalization of feelings are understood by children and alter their behavior. [8]

In another study Stevenson (1971) found that television programmes can lead to positive effects on the cognitive development of children. These two studies are representative and could be supported by hundreds of parents and school teachers who have constantly pointed out to the author that their children are very much influenced by the media. These findings certainly come as no surprise to advertisers who have long believed in the ability of the media to change the behaviour of adults and children.

Over the years a number of studies have reported some relationship between aggressive behaviour and viewing violence on television but methodological weakness and general failure to control all the variables did not permit the resolution of the question as to the nature of this relationship. The National Commission on The Causes and Prevention of Violence (1969) drew attention to the significance of the question when it concluded:

> . . . that a constant diet of violent behaviour on television has an adverse effect on human character and attitudes. Violence on television encourages violent forms of behaviour, and fosters moral and social values about violence in daily life which are unacceptable in a civilized society. [9]

Experimental support for this statement could be found in the research of Bandura and his associates. In their classic experiment Bandura *et al.* (1963a) observed young children at play after exposing them to different stimuli. They found that children who had experienced real-life or filmed instances of aggression did not differ in total aggressiveness, but did exhibit about twice as much imitative physical and verbal aggression as the children who saw no aggressive acts.

From these results the investigators concluded that television may serve as an influential model of social behaviour but caution that one must distinguish between the child's learning about aggression and his translating it into action. Bandura *et al.* (1963b) and Bandura (1965) produced some additional evidence to support this conclusion. A similar pattern of results is found in studies by Berkowitz *et al.* (1963) and Berkowitz (1965) who worked with college students. Once again subjects viewing aggressive film reacted with more aggression than control subjects viewing neutral or non-aggressive material. In addition Berkowitz (1965) demonstrated that the aggression provoked by film is more likely to be directed at persons toward whom the subjects already feel some hostility. But Berkowitz emphasises that the target person need not be someone who has been the immediate cause of injury or frustration.

Since the formation of the Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and

Social Behavior in April, 1969, researchers in the United States have looked very closely at the effects of televised violence on young viewers. This committee, with a budget of one million dollars [10] commissioned 67 independent pieces of research in an attempt to resolve the question of whether there is a causal connection between televised crime and violence and antisocial behaviour. A report and five volumes of studies published in 1972 failed to completely resolve the question but the Committee did conclude that:

> The experimental studies bearing on the effects of aggressive television entertainment content on children support certain conclusions. First, violence depicted on television can immediately or shortly thereafter induce mimicking or copying by children. Second, under certain circumstances television violence can instigate an increase in aggressive acts. The accumulated evidence, however, does not warrant the conclusion that televised violence has a uniformly adverse effect nor the conclusion that it has an adverse effect on the majority of children. It cannot even be said that the majority of the children in the various studies we have reviewed showed an increase in aggressive behavior in response to the violent fare to which they were exposed. The evidence does indicate that televised violence may lead to increased aggressive behavior in certain subgroups of children, who might constitute a small portion or a substantial proportion of the total population of young television viewers. We cannot estimate the size of the fraction, however, since the available evidence does not come from cross-section samples of the entire American population of children. [11]

But poor methodology robs this substantial report of much of its value. The television industry alone was given the veto power by the Surgeon General over nominations for places on the committee and this was used to exclude Bandura and Berkowitz, whose research had consistently shown a link between exposure to violent stimuli and aggressive behaviour. Three of the twelve members of the committee were in the employ of the networks. Of the 67 studies commissioned only 5 seriously studied the television stimuli. The remainder focused on children, adolescents and adults and paid little attention to the stimuli. Despite the inconclusive nature of the report the three networks in the United States made efforts to reduce the violent content of programmes and at the same time commissioned more studies into the effects of violent television on viewers. The final results of this network sponsored research are not yet available.

To conclude this consideration of the effects of television violence on viewers it must be said that while the definitive study remains to be done we need to conceptualize the problem from a general systems perspective. This approach recognizes that television operates in a complex social setting and its effects are undoubtedly mitigated by other social influences. But it is of concern to the author that at a time when the values and the influence of traditional institutions such as family, church and school are in question, television is continuing to emphasise violent styles of life.

Television as an Industry

During the past five years much of the study of television in the United States has focused on the broad issue of television as a powerful industry. Melody (1973), Choate (1971, 1973), Howard and Hulbert (1973), Pearce (1973) and Johnson (1970) have all examined the functions of television in American society today. From broad perspectives they attempt to explain the function of television in a capitalistic society which possesses the medium to the point of saturation. These five contributions to the understanding of television grew out of a frequently expressed concern by parents and others looking to the FTC and the FCC for some positive action on children's television. The author believes these writings have relevance for those interested in understanding the function of the media in Australia.

The television industry in Australia is run by corporations who are in the business to make a profit, and over the past twenty years these corporations have discovered that the medium can be an effective tool for commercial marketing. Television has become the dominant medium for advertising to both adults and children.

To appreciate the role of the television industry in Australian society it would be helpful to examine the basic functions of the industry and the relationship of these functions to the commercial component of the economy. According to Melody (1973) and Johnson (1970) the customer to whom the market responds is not the viewing audience but, rather, the advertiser. And the viewing audience is not the customer in the market, but rather, the product being sold. In other words, the networks sell the viewing audience to the advertisers. This is not to imply that the interests of audience and advertiser are necessarily opposed. In many respects their interests would be similar but it is important to recognize that the system is fundamentally responsive to the advertiser.

The magnitude of the television industry's role in many Western economies was underlined by J. K. Galbraith who wrote in *The New Industrial State:*

> The industrial system is profoundly dependent upon commercial television and could not exist in its present form without it . . . [Radio and television are] the prime instruments for the management of consumer demand. [12]

Commercial television, according to Choate

(1971), introduces young viewers to the ground rules of the private enterprise system in a disappointing way. Choate does not totally object to selling to children but believes it should be done in a manner which will help them acquire prudent consumer habits. Hopefully, the young can learn to be cautious without having to distrust and hate their economic system. Choate (1973) reported to the FCC that the foods sold to children by American television are not meats, fruits, vegetables and dairy products. Rather, they are the contrived and processed foods, some with, but many without nutritional merit, that dominate the airwaves. In most food advertisements directed to children the emphasis is on sweetness, colour and shape and Choate (1973) concluded that this advertising practice left children with a preoccupation for processed foods.

Howard and Hulbert (1973) in a staff report to the FTC essentially supported Choate. They saw a need for children to learn how to consume but from the evidence submitted to the FTC they concluded that it does not follow that television is a necessary, or even desirable part of this learning experience. Their report stated:

> It is conceivable that television advertising could frustrate, rather than aid, these goals. Consumer education *per se* would be a more effective (although more expensive) alternative. [13]

Both Howard and Hulbert (1973) and Choate (1971) expressed concern that, as a result of televised advertising, children frequently become surrogate salesmen urging parents to buy particular products and there is some evidence that this pressure could lead to tension within the family. The most frequent requests Ward (1972) found were for food products. These requests decreased with the age of the children, but mother's yieldings increased with the age of children. Ward also found that younger children were more inclined to attribute credibility to advertising, but even the youngest (five- to seven-year-old) viewers responded that advertising "sometimes" tells the truth but not "always".

The effects of television on the eating habits of children and adults have been studied by Clancy-Hepburn (1974) and Nevill (1973). But, as with the studies on violence, the researchers are unable to readily isolate the influence of the independent variable and hence statements about the effect of television on eating habits must remain tentative. The evidence expressed before the Select Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs of the United States Senate in 1973 revealed an increasing concern about the quality of the American diet. Studies revealed a decline in some very important parts of this diet. This decline is accompanied by a striking increase in the consumption of snack foods. In his opening statement as Committee Chairman, Senator George McGovern stated:

> In its investigation of this issue, the committee has become aware of the special importance that television now plays in influencing the nation's nutritional habits. The television advertising of food products now exerts an enormous new influence on the nation's children. . . . A heavy proportion of these commercials deal with food products and predominantly with breakfast and snack foods. [14]

The impact of television advertising on food buying and consumption patterns can only be estimated but it appears safe to conjecture that the industry is convinced that behaviour can be altered by advertising. New products are launched with expensive television commercials and contracts between food companies and advertising agencies are renewed regularly, indicating mutual satisfaction. Direct observation by Gifft *et al.* (1971) led them to write:

> The presence of television in the house causes certain changes in eating behavior in many families. Mealtimes are adjusted so that favorite programs can be watched, or meals eaten hurriedly with a minimum of attention and conversation so that programs will not be missed or else are eaten on trays in front of the set. Snacks are frequently consumed while watching. One can only guess about the extent and nutritional significance of the eating behavior that makes accommodation to the commanding presence of television. [15]

In response to pressure from those concerned about various aspects of children's television the Australian Broadcasting Control Board in 1973 issued all commercial television stations with a list of restrictions on television advertising directed at children. Included in the list are orders that advertisements must refrain from directly urging children to put pressure on parents to buy the products advertised. The stations were also directed not to place undue emphasis on the use of such words as "only" or "just" when mentioning the price of an advertised product. Restrictions on advertising in programmes directed at children are not unique to Australia. According to Howard and Hulbert (1973) eleven of the sixteen free-world countries they surveyed did not permit any advertising on children's programmes. The United States was the only country which permitted more advertising on children's programmes than on adult programmes.

While the basic question about food habits and their relationship to television must still remain unanswered one needs to continue to look at the effects of television in the context of the socialization of children. This point will be developed later in the chapter.

Role of Parents in Children's Television Behaviour

To what extent do parents attempt to control

the television their children want to watch? At least six United States research studies — Barcus (1969), Hess and Goldman (1962), Niven (1960), Witty (1967), Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior (1972) and The National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (1969) — have examined this question and the bulk of the evidence suggests that American parents do not exercise much control over the television programmes their children watch. The committee responsible for *Television and Growing Up: The Impact of Televised Violence* (1972) summarized much of the available evidence when they wrote:

> Parents usually exert little influence over their children's viewing. Our data indicate that in an overwhelming majority of families, the children control the use of the television set through early evening. Indeed, one study reports that parents often ask advice from their children when they select early evening programs. [16]

Children's control of the television in the early evening is certainly not absolute. Hess and Goldman (1962) reported that about half the American children in their study were free to turn on the television set whenever they wished, while in other homes the decision was made by a parent, usually the mother. However, it was the parents and not the children who decided when the set would be turned off.

Control by parents over the actual selection of early evening programmes also appears to be minimal although Hess and Goldman (1962) found that American mothers were more concerned with content of the programmes than actual viewing time. Fathers, on the other hand, reported little concern with any aspects of children's television unless the children's choice of programmes interfered with theirs. Niven (1960) studied Columbus, Ohio families and observed that between 7.00 p.m. - 9.00 p.m. a family decision on what was to be viewed was the chief method of programme selection.

Family choice differences were studied by Wand (1968) who found that among families in Ottawa the older children's choices tended to dominate those of the younger children, while the mother's programme choice was usually selected in preference to the father's. In differences with the children the choice of the parents was selected in about half the cases. Wand also found that in the absence of an agreement there was a tendency for the dissatisfied member to drift away.

Barcus (1969) has developed a comprehensive model for analyzing parental influence on children's viewing. There are four basic dimensions: the time that influence is exercised — before, during or after viewing; positive and negative controls; formal and informal controls; and time and content controls. The most frequent types of controls Barcus found to be negative; only a few of the mothers sampled said they forbade certain programmes prior to viewing, while most others exercised controls after the viewing had begun. Almost the entire sample of mothers in this study indicated that they suggest certain programmes for the children to view.

Chaffee *et al.* (1971) worked with 1,300 American families and concluded that parents frequently influence their children more by what they do not do than by what they do, a case of negative modelling. The Chaffee study gives little support to the notion that "parental example" in media use provides an important model for the children's viewing behaviour.

At least eight of the American studies appearing in the bibliography of this study indicate a very definite relationship between socioeconomic status (S.E.S.) and parental control of children's television — Blood (1961), Chaffee *et al.* (1971), Efron and Hickey (1969), Greenberg and Dominick (1969), Hess and Goldman (1962), Schramm and Roberts (1971), Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior (1972) and The National Com-

TABLE 5
Hourly Control of Television Dial

Television viewed by children (total daily hours)	Control of television dial — by hours		
	Children	Parents	Family*
Light viewers (N = 185 hours)	34%	34%	32%
Medium and Heavy viewers (N = 705 hours)	43%	29%	28%
All children (N = 890 hours)	41%	30%	29%

* Family — when both child and parent select programs.
$x^2 = 5.45$; df = 2; $.05 < p < .10$

TABLE 6
Control of Television Dial (by homes)

Children's daily television viewing (Monday-Thursday)	Predominant controllers of television in the home		
	Children	Parents	Family*
Light viewers (N = 54)	28%	28%	44%
Medium and Heavy viewers (N = 125)	50%	26%	23%
All children (N = 179)	43%	27%	30%

* Family — when both child and parent select programs. (In the remaining 79 homes there was no predominant controller of the television dial).

$x^2 = 10.20$; df = 2; $.001 < p < .01$

mission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (1969). In general, these studies have found that the higher the S.E.S. of parents the more they tend to control the television their children watch.

A study of 300 families in Sydney (Canavan, 1974), revealed the role of Australian parents to be similar to that of the American parents cited in the above studies. In the Sydney study the children emerged as the predominant controllers of the television dial during the hours they spend in front of the set. They control the dial for 41 per cent of the time they view television (see Table 5). In 43 per cent of the homes in the sample children exercised predominant control over the dial whereas parents exercised predominant control in just 27 per cent of the homes (see Table 6). There was some support in this study for the hypothesis that heavy viewers experience relatively less parental control over what they watch than light viewers. The study also indicated a possible negative correlation between S.E.S. and time spent viewing television. There was also some indication of a positive correlation between S.E.S. and degree of parental control. There was strong support — 86 per cent — from the parents in this study for media education courses in primary schools.

Judged by the surveys carried out by the Australian Broadcasting Control Board, *Attitudes to Television, 1968-1969*, most adults adopt the view that television is no worse for their children than comics were for themselves. Likewise, a permissive attitude to the programmes viewed by children and the time spent watching television was evident. Only 38 per cent had rules as to what their children could view, and only about one-half of the Sydney sample and one-third of the Melbourne sample placed restrictions on their amount of time spent by children watching television. Thus, it is inevitable that the majority of Australian children will be watching at least some programmes that are produced for adult audiences.

The reluctance of parents to influence the viewing habits of children is particularly significant when we consider the total impact of the medium on children. Television appears to be able to educate and socialize the young in their own homes with a minimum of intervention from parents. In the following section of this chapter this observation will be developed as the author attempts to synthesise the research findings presented above.

Some Generalizations Based on Foregoing Research

From the foregoing analysis of the four categories of impact studies — general systems perspective, stimulus-response perspective, television as an industry and parental role in children's television behaviour — one can induce a general statement on the role of the mass media in Australia today.

The twentieth century has witnessed a communications revolution that has put television, radio and the press into nearly every Australian home and men, women and children each year absorb thousands of hours of audio-visual experience. It is the author's opinion that much of this experience is enjoyed; frequently it is a source of information. Australians have grown to appreciate their television and other media.

It is widely believed that the mass media are intrinsically good and facilitate the communication of news, ideas and teaching to most Australians. Many use the media, particularly television, for the bulk of their entertainment. But available evidence would tend to suggest that the potential of the mass media in Australia is still to be realised.

Effects of media use vary from individual to individual. Human behaviour and personality development are dependent on so many interrelated variables in the environment that to isolate the effects of television, film, press or

radio appears to be an extremely difficult task. But the mass of evidence available allows one to induce a generalized overview of the effects of mass media on Australian culture.

Television is a tremendous source of knowledge for young people and is capable of providing a wide range of stimulating experiences. These experiences affect the language and symbols people use and frequently contribute to the education and socialization of the young. No contemporary literary form has a more massive audience than television and this medium can affect the acquisition of knowledge, concepts, attitudes and values. Much of this learning is incidental. The television industry is primarily concerned with informing and entertaining and makes little attempt to motivate learners or to provide opportunity for practice and studies of the relative effectiveness of instructional television reveal little evidence that it is significantly more effective than other forms of learning (Schramm and Roberts, 1971). The research by Krugman and Hartley (1970) indicated that television learning is typically passive and is characterised by an absence of resistance to what is presented.

Television viewing appears to take little time from structured activities such as homework and organized sport, but may lead to a postponement in children's bedtime. Most of the time given to television appears to come from those periods when no structured activities are scheduled. There is no evidence that television viewing has a detrimental effect on the study or homework patterns of normal, adjusted students, but there is evidence that some students use the media as an escape mechanism.

The behaviour of young people is influenced by television as hour after hour they see older people who communicate, who relate socially, who handle tensions, who resolve conflicts, who are kind, who are consumers, who play, who laugh, who listen to music and who eat particular kinds of foods. They see how some of their peers pressure parents to buy advertised products. The young are also exposed to much violence and witness a wide range of aggressive acts. The bulk of this exposure to television is frequently with the less pleasant side of life and there is a real possibility that young viewers could suffer from a loss of sensitivity and creativity. And as the whole culture is permeated by television, people are influenced whether they watch television or not.

Another possible danger of television lies not so much in the behaviour it produces as in the behaviour it prevents — the games, the talks, the family interaction. Turning on the television set can turn off communication among family members. It can also alter family living patterns. However, the extent of the influence of television on family life depends very much on the family itself. The weaker the family structure the more important television becomes.

Parents in Australia express little concern over television and make few efforts to control their children's viewing. As a result much of the thousands of hours children spend in front of television is spent viewing adult programmes. This is particularly significant in a country where the television industry expects parents to act as censors for the younger viewers.

The mass media are an essential part of the economic system in Australia. They form a powerful industry which is basically committed to making a profit. The industry has a very concentrated ownership which places substantial power in the hands of relatively few people who are in a unique position to influence the nation. The industry as a whole is primarily responsive to the advertisers and the consumer is of secondary importance. As a consequence of the present economic structure of the media industry the people have very little effective control over what is produced.

Our understanding of the impact of the mass media on students is still far from complete. More research remains to be done before we can establish in precisely what way what children are affected by what media and under what conditions. But if one believes that the massive exposure of impressionable children and adolescents to a constant diet of television has some impact then it might well be disastrous to procrastinate while waiting for the definitive research on how the media assists in the socialization and education of youth in Australia.

Television is transforming Australian culture at an unprecedented rate. Knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, customs and the habits of man are slowly being changed as television legitimizes what is acceptable in the culture. But while television is certainly a producer of culture it is also a product of culture.

The mass media have emerged as powerful forces in the socialization of young Australians. An appreciation of the principle of individual differences would suggest that it is not possible to say precisely how individuals may or may not be socialized by the media. But one can conjecture that from an early age the media show children how to play, how to consume, how to communicate, how to relate socially and how to be family members. They also introduce children to some of the realities of citizenship in our society and generally expose them to some of the richness of Australian culture.

Television, films and all forms of mass communication are constantly presenting values which either strengthen or dilute the teaching of the family, church, school and peer-group. This presentation of values by the media is more significant at a time when the influence of those institutions traditionally responsible for the pro-

cess of value transmission appears to be weakening or even breaking down. Bronfenbrenner (1972) explains:

> As a result, by the time of junior high school, a discontinuity becomes apparent between values and behavior. In the preschool and primary years, when associations with adults are still frequent and intense, the child internalises parental and community values, but many of them only at a verbal level. For previous generations, such values were then translated into corresponding patterns of action in a community which permitted and invited the involvement of children and adults in each other's lives at school, in the neighbourhood and in the world of work. In recent decades, however, these institutions have become technologized, dehumanized, and, in effect, discharged from their child-rearing responsibilities. In consequence, the child has been deprived of experience precisely in those social contexts in which values learned within the family can be translated into concrete social actions outside the family. [17]

Today, some of this vacuum is filled by the media which ceaselessly present values to a young generation anxious to examine the values of society before accepting them. While value formation is in this state of flux people will tend to develop values on the basis of the widest possible range of experience as they attempt to formulate answers to the basic questions about their lives and future. In this situation the media could be expected to play a significant role.

From the data presented in this chapter one may conclude that in the last twenty years the mass media have become very effective agents of education for Australians and the screen, the radio and the press have joined the home, school and the church in the task of education. The time has now arrived when all interested in the education of young Australians must recognise the presence of these new, but powerful agents of education and take the necessary steps to ensure that the contribution of the mass media harmonizes with that of the home, school and church. No longer can Australians afford to ignore the educational role of the mass media.

1.3 Educational Implications of the Impact of Mass Media

On the basis of the previous discussion in this chapter, an attempt will now be made to deduce some implications for education.

Students in secondary school have generally had extensive audio-visual experience and could be expected to differ from students who were educated in the pre-television era. Many of these media-educated students will possess a more complete knowledge of the world and in all probability their speech patterns, their attitudes and values, their consumption habits and their social behaviour will have been partly shaped by the television. They may have become very future oriented and may typically look to the media rather than the school for up-to-date knowledge. As a result of this constant input from the media there is a real possibility that the student will not see the school as possessing the key to the world of knowledge and progress but as an institution that is frequently preoccupied with the past. For the student, the books and courses in school are very easily compared unfavourably to television, radio and the press.

This new kind of student poses a challenge for educators. For some, the electronic media may loom as an unwelcome competitor that must be ignored in the hope that its influence will disappear. But others will recognise the educative role of the media and take the necessary steps to help the students master its codes and control its impact. Toward the end of this chapter the role of the school and the teacher will be discussed at some length.

Today the mass media expose the student to such an unrelenting stream of information that it may well be on the way to solving the problem of getting an ever increasing amount of knowledge to people. Though many still see the school's primary function in terms of dispensing knowledge, educators are becoming increasingly aware that as a result of the knowledge explosion they are no longer in a position to think of teaching primarily in terms of knowledge. This line of thinking was developed by Silberman, who cites Margaret Mead to make the point that the media are changing the nature of education. He writes:

> When we look realistically at the world in which we are living today and become aware of what the actual problems of learning are, the anthropologist Margaret Mead wrote in 1958, "our conception of education changes radically. . . . We are no longer dealing primarily with the *vertical* transmission of the tried and true by the old, mature, and experienced teachers to the young, immature, and inexperienced pupil. This was the system of education developed in a stable, slowly changing culture. In a world of rapid change, vertical transmission of knowledge alone" is not enough. "What is needed," Dr. Mead argued, "and what we are already moving toward is the inclusion of another whole dimension of learning: the *lateral* transmission, to every sentient member of society, of what has just been discovered, invented, created, manufactured, or marketed." The need is acute: "the whole teaching-and-learning continuum, which was once tied in an orderly and productive way to the passing of generations and the growth of

> the child into a man — this whole process has exploded in our faces. [18]

The nature of this changing role for schools was further explained by McLuhan (1967) who wrote:

> Today in our cities, most learning occurs outside the classroom. The sheer quantity of information conveyed by press-mags-film-TV-radio *far exceeds* the quantity of information conveyed by school instruction and texts. This challenge has destroyed the monopoly of the book as a teaching aid and cracked the very walls of the classroom, so suddenly, we're confused, baffled.
> In this violently upsetting social situation, many teachers naturally view the offerings of the new media as entertainment, rather than education. *But this view carries no conviction to the student.* [19]

The writings of McLuhan and Mead support the notion that the mass media are now firmly established educational institutions. The media teach and students learn, even though both content and methods of instruction differ from those of the schools. The teachers employed by the media bear such names as reporters, disc jockeys, announcers, commentators and entertainers. The courses of study offered by the media are more varied than the school's but are often very similar in subject matter. What the schools call social studies and civics, the mass media call news and documentaries. Unlike the school the media attract a voluntary audience which is free to accept or reject what is offered. Like a good teacher the media generally begin with the interests of their audience rather than that of the teacher and frequently employ sophisticated audio-visual aids to maintain interest. The commercial media do not normally attempt to teach the basic subjects but concentrate more on the social dimensions of education. They teach their audience such behaviours as how to consume, how to relate to others, how to relax and how to dissipate tension.

As an educational institution the media must always be considered in conjunction with the school. Both educate and it is not possible to readily isolate the influence of one or the other on students. In an attempt to provide some overview of their respective contributions to the education of the young Gans wrote:

> My hunch is that schools are best in teaching their students basic methods of formal communication, including the three R's, as well as an array of socially and occupationally relevant skills; that the media allow children to learn what is going on in the modern world, politically and culturally, and that in both, students learn many large lumps of often unimportant or irrelevant facts. . . . But children probably learn the most important aspects of life neither in the classroom nor in front of the television set. The schools may lecture them on home economics and family living, and the media will provide highly romantic versions of marital life, but the most important lessons in the school of socialization are still being taught by the family and the peer group. [20]

But in considering television and the other media as agents of education one must be careful to recognize their very definite limitations. The media certainly teach but they make no attempt to present anything resembling a whole or integrated education. While in some ways more current and realistic than schools the media generally only present a very fragmented view of society. The larger organisations and issues are frequently ignored by the media which are more geared to concentrate on the isolated, spectacular event that will hold the interest of the people for a short space of time.

The broad educative role of the media can also be understood in terms of cultural initiation. For centuries, schools transmitted culture from one generation to the next and the transmission of ideals and moral values was generally recognised as a responsibility of teachers, who were expected to support the values of parents. But, in the 1970's, culture and moral values are, whether we like it or not, very frequently presented by the mass media — directly or by implication. This brings a new dimension to the educative process and is particularly significant because of the cyclic nature of this presentation and transmission. Today's presentation of culture and values by the media can readily become tomorrow's norm and, in the long run, the media can at least support and help the forces for moral change in our society. This, of course, could be in a positive or a negative direction but what is important is that we recognise the potential of the media in the transmission of culture and values.

This educative role of the media in the modern world was clearly recognised by the Second Vatican Council. The Decree on the Media of Social Communication (December, 1963) holds the reader, listener and viewer as primarily responsible for the civilised and Christian use of the mass media. This in turn brings stress to bear on the roles of pastors, parents and teachers in guiding the young to acquire good reading, listening and viewing habits. The Decree recognises that the tastes and level of education of the public determine, in the last analysis, the quality of what is generally printed, filmed, recorded and broadcast. Publishers and producers are literally governed by prevailing tastes in society. Hence, they accept only an instrumental role in the overall process of social communication. It is not they but the public who are the principal agents.

In looking at the role of the educator rather

than that of the producer, the Decree has taken a direction already strongly indicated by Pius XII. But it does more than simply repeat his directives. It builds on them. It poses the general responsibility of educators as a foundation for its concept of the specific responsibility of the Church herself who, as *Mater* and *Magistra* is, above all, a teacher of mankind. In this Decree, the Church considers first and foremost her own responsibility and speaks of it with far more energy and vehemence than when she speaks of the responsibility of others.

The Decree of the Media of Social Communication is, in every sense of the word, a charter for the apostolate of the Church in a world that is being transformed by the communications revolution.

The Pastoral Instruction on the Means of Social Communication (1971) elaborated on the 1963 Decree and strongly urged educators to begin teaching media education courses. In response to this Pastoral, and conscious of the formative influence of the media on young Australians the Australian Bishops' Conference (September, 1972) declared:

> Called to live as true Christians, witnesses to Christ, in this media-oriented world, we must be active, and even aggressive when the occasion demands. We must learn how the media function; who are the communicators; what is their background; how to judge the truth of the message; how to abstract the message from the particular medium which has its own characteristics; how to distinguish between fantasy and reality, between apparent-fact and reality. We must learn how to distinguish good from evil, the truly beautiful from the pseudo-artistic presentation. In a word, we must become truth-seekers for it is only the truth that will set us free. We must never allow the powerful media to dull us or enchain us. We must be active in every field of the mass media.

The Bishops continued:

> It is necessary for all to learn how to control these marvels of human invention, and not let them control us. We must be discerning, with the true spirit of discernment given to the Christian by the Holy Spirit — the gift of wisdom. All must learn self-discipline in the practice of personal freedom, otherwise we will not withstand the dehumanising, de-civilising potential of the misuse of the mass media, which is always a danger. By our personal and organised efforts, taking the initiative in commending what is good and condemning what is evil, we all have the duty of bringing the constructive influence of Christ our Lord to bear on the mass media so that they will enrich man in his human development and lead him to revere the God of truth, of justice, and right. [21]

To respond to the Bishops' statement teachers will have to recognise that the education which flourished in the days of print-based learning must undergo a transformation. Education today must be relevant to an audio-visual civilisation, a civilisation that uses three systems of symbols — words, images and sounds. Schools must teach students to be literate in all three. This will require some reassessment of priorities, which, hopefully, will result in an integrated approach to modern language and modern communication. To permit media study to blossom in schools these curriculum guidelines are offered to teachers. In practice this would mean that the students would study and make use of television, film, press and radio with the objective of becoming more appreciative, discriminating and critical consumers of these agents of education and entertainment.

Mass Media Education needs to be conceptualised as a definite subject area to be included in the total curriculum. In the primary years some teachers prefer to programme media study separately, while others have moved towards an integration of Language and Media. In the secondary years teachers may wish to adopt a more inter-disciplinary approach.

Turning to the classroom, it appears obvious that if sleep alone occupies more of the average student's time than do the mass media, then steps must be taken to equip students to "read" or view television and the other media intelligently. Traditionally, schools have taught pupils to distinguish good literature from bad, good art from bad art and good music from poor and this, of course must continue in the years ahead. In no way is the author attempting to depreciate what is an accepted part of the school curriculum. Rather, he is suggesting that a changing situation be recognised and that the schools teach students to distinguish good television from bad, good radio from bad radio and good press from poor. In other words, schools should teach the language of the day.

Once the schools clearly recognise that the

mass media are agents of education and hence need to be taken seriously, they should begin to exercise some influence over the press, radio, television and film. In time, the schools should affect the whole pattern of communication since the structure of the mass media industry depends, to some extent, upon the support given it by the audience. When the schools succeed in making the consumers more appreciative, discriminating and critical in their use of the media — and thereby changing the demand — it follows that the media industry should respond with better quality press, radio, television and film.

The introduction of media study into all Australian schools could be expected to have implications beyond the classroom and the mass media. Students who are being encouraged to develop a spirit of inquiry at school could be expected to carry the same attitudes into their homes and parents may be confronted with some unexpected behaviour.

Media Education, especially in the long term, is likely to also have other social, economic and political implications.

The establishment of Mass Media Education courses in Australian schools will be a clear indication that those responsible for the education of the boys and girls in the country have recognised that the mass media are agents of education which have taken their place alongside the traditional agents — the home, the school, the church, the state.

FOOTNOTES

1. Australian Radio Advertising Bureau, *Radio Facts and Figures — 1973* (Milson's Point, N.S.W., 1973), pp. 2. 9, 21.
2. Australian Radio Advertising Bureau, *op. cit.*, p. 8.
3. Marshall McLuhan, in *McLuhan: Hot & Cool*, ed. by G. E. Stearn (New York: Dial Press, 1967), p. 114.
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9. National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, *Commission Statement on Violence in Television Entertainment Programmes* (Sydney: U.S. Information Service, 1969), p. 11.
10. Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behaviour, *Television and Growing Up: The Impact of Televised Violence* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972), p. 27.
11. *Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.
12. Cited in: N. Johnson, *How to Talk Back to Your Television Set* (New York: Bantam Books, 1970), p. 22.
13. J. A. Howard and J. Hulbert, "Advertising and the Public Interest," A Staff Report to the Federal Trade Commission (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), p. 27.
14. Select Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs of the United States Senate, *Television Advertising of Food to Children* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), pp. 255-256.
15. H. Gifft, M. Washbon and G. Harrison, *Nutrition Behaviour and Change* (Englewood Cliffe: Prentice Hall, 1972), p. 73.
16. Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior, *op. cit.*, p. 97.
17. U. Bronfenbrenner, *Influence on Human Development*, (Hinsdale, Illinois: Dryden Press, 1972), p. 665.
18. C. E. Silberman, *Crisis in the Classroom*, (New York: Vintage Books, 1971), p. 30, quoting Margaret Mead, "Thinking Ahead: Why is Education Obsolete?" *Harvard Business Review*, XXXVI (November-December, 1958).
19. Marshall McLuhan, "today we're beginning to realize that the new media aren't just mechanical gimmicks for creating worlds of illusion, but new languages with new and unique powers of expression," in *McLuhan: Hot & Cool*, ed. by G. E. Stearn (New York: Dial Press, 1967), p. 112.
20. H. J. Gans, "The Mass Media as an Educational Institution," *The Urban Review*, *2* (1) (1967), p. 10.
21. Australian Bishops' Conference, "Mass Media Education a Bounden Moral Duty," *The Leader* (September 10, 1972), p. 2.

2.0 Major Assumptions

This curriculum rests on the following major assumptions:

1. That the mass media will continue to have an impact on Australian culture and influence the students attending schools.
2. That the mass media are agents of education and exercise a socializing influence in Australian society.
3. That the mass media have definite implications for modifying the traditional roles of school teachers, administrators and curriculum builders.
4. That Christian schools are concerned with preparing students for life — life now, life in the future and life hereafter.
5. That children are capable of reacting critically to what they hear, read and view.
6. That mass media have implications for parent-child relationships.
7. That all people have a basic right to be fully and accurately informed.
8. That all people should be able to receive information, education and entertainment from the mass media.
9. That, due to economic considerations, publishers and producers are to some extent governed by the prevailing tastes in society, and therefore it is the reader, listener and viewer who is primarily responsible for the content presented by the mass media. [1]

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[1] Assumptions 7, 8 and 9 are based on the Decree of Social Communication, issued by the Second Vatican Council, 1963.

3.0 Preamble to the Course

3.1 Students for Whom the Course is Constructed

This course has been constructed to meet the needs of all secondary school students.

3.2 Programming of the Course

The content of this curriculum is designed to cover years 7-12.

The curriculum have been structured to fit into the various secondary school curricula and approaches in use in Australia. The design was purposefully formed to give administrators and teachers flexibility to incorporate a new subject area into existing programmes with a minimum of reorganization. Specific directions to the classroom teacher have also been kept to a minimum on the assumption that competent teachers will use their normal pedagogical skills in teaching this new subject. Media education, while focusing on new content, will proceed like other aspects of English and the social sciences and will not require any unique skills, apart from an appreciation of the role of the media in the lives of the students and in the culture as a whole.

An inter-disciplinary approach to media studies has much to recommend it. The content of these guidelines could be combined very naturally with English, Social Science and Religious Education programmes.

No attempt has been made to divide the objectives and learning experiences into units for specific years. Principals, Subject Masters and Teachers are encouraged to plan a co-ordinated course suited to their particular school. The following plans are offered by way of suggestion:

PLAN A:	PLAN B:
Year —	Year —
7. Introductory study of press, radio, Television and film.	7. Television and film.
8. Press.	8. Radio.
9. Radio.	9. Press.
10. Television and film.	10. Television, film, press and radio.
11. Cross-media study.	11. Cross-media study.
12. Cross-media study.	12. Cross-media study.

3.3 Methodology

The initial step in building these curriculum guidelines was to formulate from the literature a statement of the purpose of media education in schools. From this statement the author developed a detailed set of goals and goal components [1] in a form designed to help teachers in the selection of learning experiences. These goals, which include both cognitive and affective behaviours, were listed for three separate content areas: television and film, press and radio. In constructing this set of behavioural objectives, or goals, the author was guided by the general principles of objective construction outlined by Tyler, Bloom and Krathwohl. However, the approach was somewhat subjective as the author attempted to perceive knowledge, skill and attitude goals that appeared to be appropriate for secondary school students in Australia. The initial list, which contained 253 goals or goal components, was necessarily a reflection of the author's interpretation of media education.

This list of goals was sent to 19 Diocesan Directors of Catholic Education for evaluation and general comment. The 19 Directors are responsible for the education of 95.13 per cent of all students enrolled in Catholic secondary schools in Australia. The responses, of which there were 15, were interpreted as being generally supportive of the tentative goal statement. For this curriculum a modified goal statement was developed to incorporate the responses from the Diocesan Directors.

While committed to the principle of stating objectives or goals in behavioural terms, the author does not reject goals that cannot be readily measured. Tyler (1973) warned of the danger of perceiving of objectives only in terms of very specific kinds of behaviours which, he claims, can easily lead to a confusion between knowing answers and being educated. In the affective domain, especially, many of the objectives will not be easily measured, but this in no way detracts from their importance.

Suggested learning experiences were designed around the modified set of goals. Both goals and learning experiences were listed according to three content areas, but no attempt was made to match each objective with a single learning experience. Most of the learning experiences could contribute to a number of goals and any one goal could be achieved through the use of a variety of learning experiences.

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[1] Goal components are elements of a goal which, taken together, adequately describe the meaning of the goal. It is a more precise term than objective.

4.0 Desired Outcomes of the Course

Some desired OUTCOMES of this curriculum are:

4.1 An ability to be appreciative users of the mass media.

4.2 A general understanding of the nature and techniques of television, film, press and radio in our society.

4.3 Development of the skills necessary to use the media intelligently. This includes evaluating critically what is read in newspapers and magazines, what is viewed on television and film and what is heard on the radio.

4.4 Development of the skills necessary to exercise discrimination in the use of the mass media.

4.5 Development of truly human and Christian attitudes and value judgements regarding the media.

4.6 A foundation for the building of a sense of individual and social responsibility for the content presented by the media.

4.7 Making better use of television, film, radio and the press in the teaching of the secular subjects and Catechetics.

5.0 Aim of the Course

MASS MEDIA EDUCATION
AIM - TO PRODUCE YOUTH WHO WILL BE
APPRECIATIVE CRITICAL DISCRIMINATING
LISTENERS VIEWERS AND READERS

The AIM of media education in the secondary years is to have the pupils respond and react to what they view on television and film, to what they read in the press, and to what they listen to from the radio. In doing this they will come to some understanding of the nature, techniques and purpose of the media of social communication and thereby be predisposed to develop critical Christian attitudes to television, film, press and radio. The end of such media education is to develop persons who will be discriminating truth seekers in their use of the media to understand the nature, techniques and purposes of radio, press, television and film.

The fundamental purpose of mass media education is to produce youth who will be appreciative, critical and discriminating listeners, readers and viewers. Ideally, the youth of tomorrow will be equipped to seek the truth in the mass media they and others use.

6.0 Objectives of the Course

The objectives in these curriculum guidelines have been spelt out in detail in order to identify the purpose and intended outcome of media education. They are meant to be guidelines for determining what is to be learned, how it is to be taught, what teaching materials are needed and how it will be evaluated. The objectives have been broken down into goals and goal components and stated in terms of behaviours and content. The list of objectives is exhaustive, but it is not expected that any student would master them all. Rather, teachers are expected to select from the list those objectives which best suit the maturational level of their students.

It will be noted that many of the behaviours are common to all three media. They were listed this way to assist those teachers who would be concentrating on one medium in a given class.

6.1 The Press

A. The pupil will have the *knowledge* to be appreciative, discriminating and critical in his or her use of the press.

1. The pupil will *know how* the press in Australia operates.
   a. Will know the names of the more popular newspapers and magazines.
   b. Will be familiar with the anatomy of some major newspapers.
   c. Will know that only some stories are selected for publication.
   d. Will know how stories are selected for publication.
   e. Will know a little about how stories are positioned in newspapers and magazines.
   f. Will know how the press uses words, symbols, photographs and cartoons to convey information.
   g. Will know that the news is frequently interpreted before presentation to the public.
   h. Will know what is good reporting.
   i. Will know the broad ethics of responsible news reporting.
   j. Will know that publications can contain biased reporting.
   k. Will know that various publications can report the same event in very different ways.
   l. Will know that the press has the ability to create news.
2. The pupil will *know something of the skills required* of professionals working in the various media, their difficulties, opportunities and responsibilities.
3. The pupil will have a *knowledge of the role* of the press in Australia.
   a. Will know that the press has the power to influence the attitudes and values of people, organisations and governments.
      1. Will know that the press can serve as a protector of individual and communal rights.
      2. Will know that the individual and community can be both helped and harmed by the press and other media.
      3. Will know that the press (and other media) sees itself as an extension of the legislature, especially of the opposition.
      4. Will know that a democracy requires a free press.
      5. Will know that the functions of the press are to inform, to interpret, to entertain, to serve, and to be a viable business.
4. The pupil *will know the Church's attitude* toward the press as expressed in the Decree on the Media of Social Communication (1963) and in the Pastoral Instruction on the Means of Social Communication (1971).

B. The pupil will have the *ability* to be appreciative, discriminating and critical in his or her use of the press.

1. The pupil will *have effective reading skills.*
   a. Will be able to obtain maximum comprehension from the newspaper and magazine stories he or she chooses to read.
   b. Will be able to recall the important things he or she reads in the press.
   c. Will be able to use the press to extend his or her range and depth of

interests and vocabulary.

d. Will be able to use the press as a source of information.

e. Will be able to interpret political cartoons, photographs, sketches, tables, diagrams, graphs and other non-verbal material.

f. Will be able to recognise quality in the press.

2. The pupil will be able to *compare and contrast* newspapers and magazines.

3. The pupil will be able to *critically assess and judge* what he or she reads in terms of previously-acquired knowledge.

   a. Will check new information against previously-acquired knowledge.

   b. Will resolve discrepancies between new information and previously-acquired knowledge.

4. The pupil will be able to *critically assess and judge* what he or she reads in terms of his or her own attitudes.

   a. Will compare attitudes presented by the press against his or her own attitudes.

   b. Will resolve discrepancies between the attitudes presented by the press and those personally held.

5. The pupil will be able to *rate newspapers and magazines* on the basis of personal enjoyment and enrichment.

6. The pupil will be able to *appreciate and enjoy* the press he or she reads.

7. The pupil will be able to *analyze newspaper and magazine* articles.

   a. Will identify the elements which constitute the anatomy of newspapers and magazines.

   b. Will identify the central issues presented by the press.

   c. Will distinguish between relevant and irrelevant articles in the press.

   d. Will distinguish fact from opinion.

   e. Will recognise bias and emotional factors in reporting.

   f. Will distinguish the political bias of newspapers and magazines.

   g. Will be able to appreciate that there is no value-free reporting of news.

   h. Will recognise stereotypes and cliches.

   i. Will recognise underlying and unstated assumptions.

   j. Will appreciate the different level or style of language that is necessary in a newspaper, as distinct, for example, from novels and history books.

   k. Will recognise the general techniques used in persuasive materials such as advertising and propaganda.

8. The pupil will be *able to understand* press advertisements.

   a. Will recognise what he or she is told about advertised products.

   b. Will recognise what he or she is not told about advertised products.

   c. Will recognise the truth in advertisements.

   d. Will recognise anything false or misleading in advertisements.

   e. Will be able to discriminate between informational and motivational advertising.

9. The pupil will be *able to recognise* better quality publications.

10. The pupil will be able to *use the press* to become more aware of the world about him or her.

11. The pupil will *examine* a variety of viewpoints on significant issues presented in the press with the purpose of forming opinions about them.

12. The pupil will be able to *synthesise* the information he or she obtains from the press and other mass media.

13. The pupil will be able to *form judgements* as to the responsibility of society for conserving truth in the Australian press.

14. The pupil will be able to *generate questions* about the newspapers' presentation of Australian society.

15. The pupil will be able to *appreciate the function* of the press in the modern world.

C. The pupil will *want to* be appreciative, discriminating and critical in his or her use of the press.

   1. The pupil will have a *continuing desire* to develop the ability to read the press critically.

   2. The pupil will want to *evaluate* what he or she reads in terms of internal evidence and external criteria.

      a. Will judge newspapers and magazines in terms of logical accuracy and consistency.

      b. Will recognise logical fallacies in arguments.

3. The pupil will want to *critically assess and judge* what he or she reads in the press.
4. The pupil will want to *increase his or her sensitivity* to human needs and pressing social problems presented by the Australian press.
   a. Will give his or her attention to human and social concerns presented by the press.
5. The pupil will want to be *alert toward human values and judgements* on life as they are presented by the press.
   a. Will consider the presentation of human values judgements on life.
   b. Will respond to this presentation in an appropriate way.
6. The pupil will want to acquaint himself or herself with *significant current issues* in national and international political, social and economic affairs through voluntary use of newspapers and magazines.
   a. Will seek the relevant information.
   b. Will separate fact from opinion.
   c. Will form opinions on significant issues.
7. The pupil will be *ready to revise judgements* and change behaviour in light of new evidence presented by the press.
8. The pupil will want to *synthesise* the information he or she obtains from the press and other mass media.
9. The pupil will want to *form judgements* as to the responsibility of society for conserving truth in the Australian press.
10. The pupil will want to *exercise personal judgement* and responsibility in his or her use of the press.
    a. Will select those publications which have more potential for personal profit.
    b. Will accept some responsibility for the country's press.
       1. Will respond to the publishers and authorities when publications are of above average quality.
       2. Will respond to the authorities and publishers when the publications are offensive.

6.2 Television and Film [1]

A. The pupil will have the *knowledge* to be appreciative, discriminating and critical in his or her use of television and film.

1. For convenience this curriculum has combined the study of film and television. However, the unique characteristics of each medium should not be overlooked.

1. The pupil will *know how television operates* in Australia.
   a. Will have a basic understanding of the technical elements of television.
      1. Will know the function of the camera, film, video-tape, telerecording, transmitter and home receiver.
      2. Will know that television is transmitted from a number of centrally-located television channels.
   b. Will know that Australian television channels carry both imported and indigenous programmes.
   c. Will know that the Australian Broadcasting Commission and the Australian Broadcasting Control Board have responsibility for the maintenance of the standards of the Australian television industry.
   d. Will be familiar with the anatomy or content areas of Australian television.
   e. Will know that television news is frequently accompanied by interpretation and analysis.
   f. Will know what is good television reporting.
   g. Will know the broad ethics of responsible television reporting.
   h. Will know that television reporting can be biased and even unfair.
   i. Will know that television channels can report the same event in very different ways.
   j. Will know that direct telecasts can bring instant news to the Australian people.
   k. Will know of the exposure of Australians to television.
2. The pupil will have a *knowledge of the role of television and film* in Australia.
   a. Will know that television and film have the power to influence the attitudes and values of people, organizations and governments.

1. Will know that the functions of these media are to inform, to interpret, to entertain, to serve and to be a viable business.
2. Will know that television and the other media can serve as agents of change and creators of taste.
3. Will know that television has some impact on the Australian culture.
4. Will know the broad outline of the ownership pattern of the mass media industry.

3. The pupil will *know the Church's attitude* toward television as expressed in the Decree on the Media of Social Communication (1963) and the Pastoral instruction on the Means of Social Communication (1971).

4. The pupil will *know the basic elements of film.*
   a. Will know some of the characteristics of the cast, the plot and the setting of selected films.
   b. Will know something of the significance of such techniques as lighting, photography, costuming, make-up and set construction.
   c. Will know some of the terms used in film making; for example, the names of the various shots, the use of time, sound track and editing.

B. The pupil will have the *ability* to be appreciative, discriminating and critical in his or her use of television and film.

1. The pupil will be able to *enjoy and appreciate* the film and television he or she views.

2. The pupil will have *effective viewing skills.*
   a. Will be able to comprehend fully what he or she views.
   b. Will be able to recall the more significant things he or she views.
   c. Will be able to accurately repeat to others some items he or she views on television and film.
   d. Will be able to use film and television to extend his or her range and depth of interests and vocabulary.
   e. Will be able to use television and film as a source of information.
   f. Will be able to interpret what he or she views.
   g. Will be able to recognise quality on the screen.

3. The pupil will be able to *compare and contrast* television programmes.

4. The pupil will be able to *appreciate the role of television* in the development of public opinion.

5. The pupil will be able to *critically assess and judge* what he or she views in terms of previously-acquired knowledge.
   a. Will compare new information against previously-acquired knowledge.
   b. Will resolve discrepancies between new information and previously-acquired knowledge.

6. The pupil will be able to *critically assess and judge* what he or she views in terms of his or her own attitudes.
   a. Will compare attitudes presented by television and film against his or her own attitudes.
   b. Will resolve discrepancies between the attitudes presented by television and those personally held.

7. The pupil will be able to *rate television programmes and film* on the basis of enjoyment and enrichment.

8. The pupil will be able to *analyze film and television programmes.*
   a. Will identify the central issues presented by film and television.
   b. Will distinguish between relevant and irrelevant statements.
   c. Will distinguish fact from opinion and fantasy.
   d. Will recognise bias and emotional factors in a presentation.
   e. Will recognise any political bias exhibited by television channels.
   f. Will appreciate that there is no value-free reporting.
   g. Will recognise underlying and unstated assumptions.
   h. Will recognise stereotypes and cliches.
   i. Will recognise the general techniques used in persuasive materials such as advertising and propaganda.

9. The pupil will be able to *understand* television commercials.
   a. Will recognise what he is told about advertised products.
   b. Will recognise what is not told about advertised products.
   c. Will recognise the truth in advertisements.
   d. Will recognise anything false or misleading in advertisements.

e. Will have a knowledge of advertising techniques and know why these techniques are effective.
f. Will be able to understand what advertising is and how it works.
g. Will be able to judge the value and accuracy of various types of promotion, advertising and sales in terms of objective standards.

10. The pupil will be able to *differentiate* between what he regards as pleasant and unpleasant music in film and television.

11. The pupil will be able to *appreciate the artistic* qualities of music in film and television.
    a. Will listen to music with some discrimination as to mood and meaning and with some recognition of the contributions of various elements to the total effect.
    b. Will recognise the different roles which music plays in film and television programming.

12. The pupil will be able to *recognise* what he considers to be better quality programmes.

13. The pupil will be able to *use television* to become more aware of the world about him.

14. The pupil will *examine a variety of viewpoints* on significant issues presented by television and film with the purpose of forming opinions about them.

15. The pupil will be *ready to revise judgements* and change behaviour in light of new evidence presented by film and television.

16. The pupil will be able to *synthesise* the information he or she obtains from television and other mass media.

17. The pupil will be able to *form judgements* as to the responsibility of society for conserving truth in Australian television.

18. The pupil will be able to *generate questions* about the medium's presentation of Australian society.

19. The pupil will be able to *appreciate the function* of film and television in the modern world.

C. The pupil will *want to* be appreciative discriminating and critical in his or her use of television and film.

1. The pupil will have a continuing *desire to develop the ability* to view film and television critically.

2. The pupil will want to *evaluate what he or she views* in terms of internal evidence and external criteria.
    a. Will judge television and film in terms of logical accuracy and consistency.
    b. Will recognise logical fallacies in arguments presented by television.

3. The pupil will want to *critically assess and judge* the film and television he or she views.

4. The pupil will want to *increase his or her sensitivity* to human needs and pressing social problems presented by television and film.
    a. Will give attention to human and social concerns.

5. The pupil will want to *be alert toward human values and judgements* on life as they are presented by television and film.
    a. Will consider the presentation of human values and judgements on life.
    b. Will respond to this presentation in an appropriate way.

6. The pupil will want to acquaint himself or herself with *significant current issues* in national and international political, social and economic affairs through voluntary use of television and film.
    a. Will seek the relevant information.
    b. Will separate fact from opinion and fantasy.
    c. Will form opinions on significant issues.

7. The pupil will want to *synthesise* the information he or she obtains from television, film and other mass media.

8. The pupil will want to *form judgements* as to the responsibility of society for conserving truth in this important medium.

9. The pupil will want to *exercise personal judgement* and responsibility in his or her use of television and film.
    a. Will select those programmes which have more potential for personal profit.
    b. Will accept some responsibility for the country's television and film.
        1. Will respond to the producers and authorities when the productions are of above average quality.
        2. Will respond to the authorities and producers when the productions are offensive.
        3. Will insist that the media provide adequate and comprehensive programmes when they fail to do so.

6.3 Radio

A. The pupil will have the *knowledge* to be appreciative, discriminating and critical in his or her use of the radio.

1. The pupil will *know how* the radio operates in Australia.
   a. Will know that programmes are transmitted from many places.
   b. Will know that a radio receiver is designed to pick up a number of programmes which are transmitted on a variety of frequencies.
   c. Will know that radio stations use different formats to entertain listeners.
   d. Will know that radio can bring news very rapidly to listeners.
   e. Will know that many radio stations are part of large radio networks.
   f. Will know that radio stations are expected to follow the general regulations of the Australian Broadcasting Commission and the Australian Broadcasting Control Board.

2. The pupil will have *a knowledge of the role* of radio in Australia.
   a. Will know that radio has the power to influence the attitudes and values of people, organizations and governments.
      1. Will know that the functions of radio are to entertain, to inform, to interpret, to serve and to be a viable business.
      2. Will know that many radio stations are owned by companies with newspaper and television interests.

3. The pupil *will know the Church's attitude* toward radio as expressed in the Decree on the Media of Social Communication (1963) and in the Pastoral Instruction on the Means of Social Communication (1971).

B. The pupil will have the *ability* to be appreciative, discriminating and critical in his or her use of the radio.

1. The pupil will be able to *appreciate and enjoy* what he or she hears on the radio.
2. The pupil will have *effective listening skills*.
   a. Will be able to understand what he or she hears on radio.
   b. Will be able to recognise quality in radio programmes.
   c. Will be able to recall the important things he or she hears on radio.
   d. Will be able to accurately repeat to others what was heard on radio news broadcasts.
   e. Will be able to use the radio as a source of information.
3. The pupil will be able to *compare and contrast* radio programmes.
4. The pupil will be able to *differentiate* between what he or she regards as pleasant and unpleasant radio music.
5. The pupil will be able to *appreciate the artistic* qualities of radio music.
   a. Will listen to music with some discrimination as to mood and meaning and with some recognition of the contributions of various elements to the total effect.
   b. Will recognise the different roles which music plays in radio programming.
6. The pupil will be able to *use the radio* to increase his or her awareness of the world about him or her.
7. The pupil will be able to *critically assess and judge* what he or she hears in terms of previously-acquired knowledge.
   a. Will compare new information against previously-acquired knowledge.
   b. Will resolve discrepancies between new information and previously acquired knowledge.
8. The pupil will be able to *critically assess and judge* what he or she hears in terms of his or her attitudes.
   a. Will compare attitudes presented in radio programmes against his or her own attitudes.
   b. Will resolve discrepancies between the attitudes presented by a radio programme and those held personally.
9. The pupil will be able to *rate* radio programmes on the basis of enjoyment and enrichment.
10. The pupil will be able to *analyse* radio programmes.

a. Will identify the central issues in relevant programmes.
b. Will distinguish between relevant and irrelevant statements.
c. Will distinguish fact from opinion.
d. Will recognise bias and emotional factors in a presentation.
e. Will recognise stereotypes and cliches.
f. Will recognise underlying and unstated assumptions.
g. Will recognise the general techniques used in persuasive materials such as advertising and propaganda.

11. The pupil will be able to *understand* radio advertisements.
    a. Will recognise the truth in advertisements.
    b. Will recognise anything false or misleading in advertisements.
12. The pupil will examine *a variety of viewpoints* on significant issues presented by radio with the purpose of forming opinions about them.
13. The pupil will be ready to *revise judgements* and change behaviour in light of new evidence presented by the radio.
14. The pupil will be able to *synthesise* the information he or she obtains from the radio and other mass media.
15. The pupil will be able to *form judgements* as to the responsibility of society for conserving truth in radio programmes.

C. The pupil will *want to* be appreciative, critical and discriminating in his or her use of the radio.

1. The pupil will have a continuing *desire to develop the ability* to listen critically to the radio.
2. The pupil will want to develop a *better understanding* and appreciation of radio music.
3. The pupil will want to *critically assess and judge* what he or she hears on the radio.
4. The pupil will want to *increase his or her sensitivity* to human needs and pressing social problems presented by radio.
    a. Will give his or her attention to human and social concerns presented by the radio.
5. The pupil will want to be *alert toward human values and judgements* on life as they are presented by the radio.
    a. Will consider the radio's presentation of human values and judgements on life.
    b. Will respond to this presentation in an appropriate way.
6. The pupil will want to acquaint himself or herself with *significant current issues* in national and international political, social and economic affairs, through voluntary use of radio.
7. The pupil will want to *synthesise* the information obtained from the radio and other mass media.
8. The pupil will want to *form judgements* as to the responsibility of society for conserving truth in radio.
9. The pupil will want to *exercise personal judgement* and responsibility in his or her use of the radio.
    a. Will select those radio programmes which have more potential for personal profit.
    b. Will accept some responsibility for the country's radio.
        1. Will respond to the producers and authorities when programmes are of above average quality.
        2. Will respond to the authorities and producers when the broadcasts are offensive.

7.0 Suggested Learning Experiences

These curriculum guidelines are designed for a process approach to learning which is characterised by inductive thinking, skill development, creativity and inquiry approaches to learning. In process education, the curriculum content is the vehicle by which the goals of knowledge, skill and attitude development may be realised. The significance of this approach is described by Cole:

> Process education recognizes that people live by their skills. Both the productivity and quality of life are related to the skills of the individual. Skills of learning, of relating to others, of empathy, of analyzing and synthesizing information and experience, of planning and implementing action, of conceptualizing, generalizing, expressing, and valuing are a few of those by which we live. People do not live by information. The information is needed, but, without the skills to act on the information, the person is crippled. The power lies not so much in the information as in the skills to organize and use it, to make meaning from it.[1]

In a process approach to education much of the outcome is a direct result of the students' involvement in the various learning experiences provided by the teacher. Hence, the learning experiences suggested in this chapter are primarily designed to thoroughly involve the students in a study of the media and teachers are encouraged to make maximum use of newspapers, films, television and radio programmes, tape recorders, cameras and other materials. This is not to imply that there is no place in the curriculum for teacher input. However, the teacher's role is seen primarily as that of stimulator, questioner, and facilitator and not that of a lecturer.

The suggested learning experiences in this chapter are provided to help teachers achieve the behavioural objectives outlined above. The list of experiences is exhaustive and teachers are encouraged to be selective. Most of the learning experiences listed will contribute to the attainment of more than one objective, hence no attempt was made to match each of the 252 objectives with a single learning experience. Teachers are encouraged to plan their media lessons in terms of groups of objectives and learning experiences that would facilitate their achievement. To ensure vitality, teachers are asked to make use of the media, as well as the objectives, when planning their work. The content of the media at any given time will be a significant factor in the selection of learning experiences.

1. H. P. Cole, *Process Education*, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1972), p. 4.

The learning experiences have been listed in approximate order of difficulty. The early experiences tend to focus on basic comprehension and knowledge, while the later experiences are more directed toward generalizations, attitudes and values. Learning experiences of a similar kind have been listed consecutively. In making their selection, teachers are encouraged to use a cross-section of the suggested learning experiences in each of the three content areas.

The following activities are suggested:

7.1 The Press

1. Ask each student to bring to class a copy of the same edition of the same paper. The paper selected for class use should be the one the families in the area buy. The paper could be used for a wide variety of activities, including reading comprehension, listening skills, oral and written expression, current affairs, advertising exercises, and a study of the press. Many of the learning experiences suggested in these curriculum guidelines require that the sudents all have access to the same edition of the same paper.
2. Familiarise the students with the anatomy or traditional format of newspapers. The following outline may be helpful:

Masthead	:	name of paper date of publication price Edition symbol.
News Items	:	headline (or streamer) main story main local news items main national news items main international news items sources of some news items Photographs, stop press
Comment	:	editorial letters to editor political cartoons

Services	:	advertising business news weather radio and television shipping
Entertainment	:	sporting information comics and cartoons feature articles.

As a follow-up activity have the class members conduct a survey in class to determine which sections of the newspaper are most widely read by students. Discuss the findings.

3. Have each student clip from his newspaper and put into his notebook one sample of each of the following sections of the paper.
   a. Index
   b. Local news story
   c. State news story
   d. Federal news story
   e. Foreign news story
   f. Advertisement
   g. Sports story
   h. Political cartoon
   i. Weather forecast
   j. Editorial

4. The presentation of news is of prime importance. Have the students study selected news items according to the following headings:
   a. Amount of space
   b. Position in the paper
   c. Heading and style
   d. Photographs and illustrations.

5. After studying their newspapers ask the students to list all the sources of news in the press. The following lists could serve as a check list: editors, journalists, reporters, correspondents, press agencies (A.A.P. and U.P.I.) and readers.

6. Have the students collect some wire-service news copy from a newspaper (or local radio station). Display these on the class notice board.

7. Study the use of pictures in the press. The following question may help begin a discussion: What do pictures add to the written word?

8. Have the students examine a number of editorials from different newspapers and then be prepared to answer the following questions:
   a. With what topic does each editorial deal?
   b. How does an editorial differ from a news story?
   c. Is the editorial written to entertain or to influence its readers?

9. Examine newspaper editorials for dictatorial or democratic tone. Do they seem to respect your ability to think and judge for yourself?

10. Have each student locate a political cartoon and answer the following questions:
    a. What do you consider to be the meaning of the cartoon?
    b. What opinion does the cartoon suggest?
    c. Are the opinions illustrated in the cartoon fair? Do you agree with them?
    d. Would words have been more effective than the cartoon?
    e. Could the caption under the cartoon be altered to change the emphasis or meaning of the cartoon?

11. Ask each student to make a list of the magazines with which he is familiar. Next to each magazine write the name of the publisher. Pin these lists on the notice board and ask the students to study the names of the publishers of these magazines. Plan a discussion on their observations.

12. Take a list of magazines from the above exercise and ask the students to indicate the intended audiences for those magazines with which they are most familiar. Have them use the following categories: General audience, children, young people, young women, women, men, sportsmen, business people and parents.

13. Arrange for a couple of students to conduct a survey of the magazines purchased regularly by the parents of the students in the class. Display the results of the survey and plan a discussion of the most popular magazines.

14. Have each student look at one issue of a magazine. From a study of the advertisements, have them draw some conclusions about the magazine's readership.

15. Have the students make a collage from newspaper and magazine clippings which reinforces a single image with different words and pictures; for example, the image of youthfulness, you and pleasure, suffering, charity, economy.

16. Many comic strips present ideas about society and the teacher can help students understand this literary form. The following activities are suggested:
    a. Have each student clip a month's instalments of his favourite comic strip and then answer the following questions: What was the plot? Was the story well presented? How many incidents happened in the month? Were the characters stereotypes? Did you identify with any of the characters? Does the strip have a message?
    b. Have each student take a single strip and write a new text to accompany the pictures. As a variation have them design

an original strip by collating single frames from a number of comic strips.

17. Have the students express their thoughts on a symbol or a comic strip character. Ask them to account for its popularity.

18. Arrange to take the students to a newspaper printing plant. Have students inquire into the specific roles of those responsible for publication and production of newspapers.

19. Have the students create an enlarged mock-up of a newspaper on the class notice board, including all sections found in daily newspapers.

20. Have the students create a model newspaper of their own. Duplicate the newspaper and distribute to other classes.

21. The newspaper as a vehicle of communication can be a very valuable tool in the English programme. It can be used in the development of speaking, listening, writing and reading skills. Some suggested activities are:
    a. Oral Expression:
       Discussion of the headlines of selected stories.
       Discussion of possible developments in current affairs.
       Discussion of solutions to problems related in the press.
    b. Written Expression:
       Re-writing press stories in own words.
       Writing summaries of particular stories.
       Re-writing a story to give it a different ending.
    c. Reading:
       Select press stories for regular comprehension lessons.
       Vocabulary exercises.
       Library assignment to find additional information on topics in the press.

22. Have students rewrite a newspaper story from various points of view, but keeping to the point.

23. For a written exercise have the students express the same message at different levels of difficulty and abstraction.

24. Have the students write the following:
    a. An answer to a "Help Wanted" advertisement
    b. A letter to the editor
    c. A headline and a short article about some school activity
    d. An editorial based on a news story in the press
    e. Some alternate headlines for stories published in the newspaper.

25. The following activities require that each student has access to a newspaper:
    a. Locate stories that provide only the facts.
    b. Find examples of slanting:
       1. by use of headlines
       2. by use of emotionally-toned words
       3. by over-emphasising a story.
    c. Discuss an interesting story and lead students to ask:
       1. What happened?
       2. Why did it happen?
       3. What difference does it make?

26. Give the students a list of facts from an actual news story. Have them draft stories from the facts presented. Compare the students' stories with the original newspaper story.

27. News can be divided into the following categories:
    a. Important and interesting
    b. Unimportant and interesting
    c. Important and uninteresting
    d. Unimportant and uninteresting.

    Select a page in the newspaper the students have access to and have them place each story into one of the four categories. This

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could be quickly done by placing the correct numeral at the top of each story.

28. Assign each student a page in a newspaper and have him classify the stories into three categories: "good news," "bad news" and "neutral." Tally the results for the whole class on the blackboard. Why is so much of the news "bad news?"

29. Provide the groups in your class with ten identical clippings from a recent newspaper. Tell the students to shuffle the clippings and then sort the stories in order of importance along a continuum from "most important" to "least important." Summarize the results on the blackboard and then discuss the following questions:
    a. What criteria was used in determining importance?
    b. What criteria do newspaper editors use?
    c. Are there any significant differences in these sets of criteria?

30. Have the students compare reports on the same game in several different newspapers and analyse the similarities and differences.

31. After the students become familiar with the anatomy of newspapers, some work could be done on the differences among newspapers. The following activities are recommended:
    a. Note different headline topics in the papers on a given day.
    b. Compare page placements of the same item of news in different papers.
    c. Compare the photographs of a particular event in the different papers.
    d. Locate news items in one paper that are not found in the same edition of a comparable paper.
    e. Select two well known politicians and cut out every news item that appears about them over a period of a couple of weeks. Pin these on the notice board, then:
        1. Compare and contrast the words and phrases used in each item.
        2. Compare and contrast the photographs used.
        3. Do different papers see these politicians in different ways?

32. Have the students search for an example of a press story where two newsmen drew different conclusions from the same facts. Underline the differences and display on notice board. Plan a discussion around the following questions:
    a. Which newsman supported his interpretation with more facts.
    b. Were some of the interpretive reports contradictory?

33. Select an issue of importance and have the students collect a variety of clippings from newspapers. In a class discussion consider the following questions:
    a. Were there any points on which all the newspapers expressed similar views?
    b. What were the most noticeable differences?
    c. Were these differences of a factual nature or opinion?

    As a follow-up activity have the students write their assessment of the issue under discussion.

34. Have the students analyze a political speech in which a candidate is trying to reach a large number or people. How many specific solutions to specific problems does he offer? How many general proposals?

35. Have each student obtain a copy of the same edition of the same newspaper. Do the following exercises:
    a. Circle the articles or portions of articles that you think could make their way into history books. Use one colour marking pen for signed articles and another colour for unsigned articles.
    b. Check back through the circled articles and underline words or phrases that appear slanted or opinionated.
    c. Compare the students' judgement on news events considered historic.

36. Have the students make a study of the local press and ask them to list ten of the more important issues covered in recent days. Discuss the kinds of issues which tend to receive the most attention in the local press. Are these issues different from the issues highlighted in the national press?

37. Arrange for some students to attend a local council meeting and then have them compare it to the report in the local press. The following questions could be used in the class discussion:
    a. Were all the issues discussed at the meeting contained in the press report?
    b. Were the issues reported in the press the most important discussed at the council meeting?
    c. Why is it good for the public that the council's deliberations are reported in the local press.

38. Have the students compare their newspaper with those from other cities in its coverage of one major event. In a follow-up discussion try to account for the major differences and similarities.

39. Ask the students to collect some foreign newspapers. Compare the major stories in these papers with those in the Australian press. Note the differences and similarities.

40. Collect some foreign news cuttings from the Australian press. Arrange a notice board display and then discuss the significance of a foreign event in relation to geographical distance. Further, consider why some countries are infrequently mentioned in the Australian press.

41. As a part of the study of society the students could be asked to:
    a. Compare and contrast Australia with other countries in the world news.
    b. Make an in-depth study of a particular country through a study of news clippings over an extended period.

42. Select a current social issue for study and have the students collect stories and advertisements. Arrange these cuttings on the notice board under "for" and "against" headings.

43. Direct the students to watch the press for some investigative reporting. Display clippings of investigative stories on the notice board and discuss the following questions:
    a. What areas of public concern were covered in these investigations?
    b. What are some possible effects of the publication of these stories?

44. Have the students bring various newspapers and magazines to class. Ask the students to examine these publications in order to discover the purposes they serve.

45. Focus the students' attention on a newspaper advertisement and ask the following basic questions:
    a. What is the product?
    b. What are you told about the product?
    c. What are you not told about the product?
    d. Could the advertisement be created in another way?
    How?

46. Involve the class in a survey to determine the advertising media that most attract their attention. Suggested headings are: billboards, magazines, newspapers, radio, television and other media.

47. Students could study newspaper and magazine advertisements and make a collection of:
    a. Clever headlines
    b. Bold displays of brand names
    c. Clear messages of a helpful nature
    d. Exaggerated messages
    e. Appealing photographs.

48. Have students compare the information in a food product advertisement with the information on the label of the same product. Discuss any significant differences.

49. Taste test — blindfold some students and have them see if they can tell the difference in the taste of three different products; for example, breakfast cereal or fruit juices.

50. Consider the following questions:
    a. How important are nutritional factors for the advertisers of food products in Australia?
    b. Does any one line of food product frequently contain mention of nutritional factors.

51. Have the class make up a notice board display of press advertisements that provide adequate and helpful information about a particular class of product. Discuss this approach to advertising.

52. Most advertising is aimed at specific audiences. From a collection of press advertisements have the students attempt to identify the intended audience for each advertisement.

53. Discuss why and when various companies put on special sales campaigns.

54. Have the students collect advertisements from newspapers and magazines and then answer the following questions about each one:
    a. What need in man is being appealed to in this advertisement?
    b. Is this need a basic need?
    c. Can the product satisfy that need? For what kind of person?
    d. Is there another more effective way of answering this need?

55. Direct pupils to collect newspaper advertisements that make use of the following appeals: conformity, imitation, association, economic, beauty, sex, "snob" and intellectual.

56. During election campaigns, groups in the class could be directed to study the advertising of the various political parties. The volume and approach of the advertising by the parties could be compared.

57. Discuss instances where students feel that they have been misled by advertising.
    Discuss instances where students feel that they have been helped by advertising.

58. Statements for class discussion or debate:
    a. Advertisements can be an aid for consumers as well as sellers.
    b. High pressure selling frequently forces people to buy what they really do not need.
    c. Most advertisements are interesting, informative and in good taste.
    d. Advertising encourages consumers to spend more money than they can afford.

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e. Newspaper advertisements are particularly helpful in supplying information about sales and special low prices in local areas.

59. The following questions are suggested to focus attention on the role of advertising in Australia.
    a. How much responsibility do you think advertisers should assume?
    b. What about giving the consumer information? Does the advertiser have a responsibility in this area?
    c. Does advertising help the consumer choose what is best for him?

60. Have students do research on what it costs to advertise. Discuss who actually pays advertising costs. What would happen if there were no advertising?

61. Have students do research to determine what proportion of the cost of publishing a newspaper is paid by the advertisers. In what way can the advertisers put pressure on the newspaper and thus affect what is published?

62. Set the students to find out who owns the city's newspaper(s). What else do they own?

63. Three companies own most of the newspapers published in Australian capital cities each day. Ask the students to find out the names of these three companies and the names of some of the newspapers published by each. In addition, some students may be able to find out something about the television and radio holdings of these three companies.

64. Many of the learning experiences in this curriculum could also be used with papers like "The Catholic Weekly," "The Advocate," "The Leader," and "The Southern Cross."

65. Arrange a discussion on the possible ways of compensating for the lack of contact between the sender and receiver of the mass-communicated message. Include a consideration of how people can check the accuracy of a message, and how they may acquire independent information.

66. Set aside a corner of the class notice board for a collection of newspaper and magazine cartoons and comic strips that effectively show the ways the electronic media are changing our perceptions, living habits, expectations and sensitivities.

67. Consider this hypothetical question in class: What would be the consequences if communication between Australia and other countries were suddenly broken off.

68. Debate: Children are more susceptible to repetition and reinforcement than adults. Adults are more aware of the techniques being used on them, and therefore they are more likely to resist automatic, compulsive decision-making.

69. Discuss this statement by Gilbert Seldes: "We are taking part in a cultural revolution . . . which is essentially a shift from the power of the printed word, which we have always accepted and revered, to the power of electronic communications."

70. Discuss with the students how the mass media influence people, their cognition, world view, values and attitudes. The following questions may help to enrich this discussion:
    a. How do the mass media help mould our world view?
    b. How does this view correspond to reality?
    c. In what way can news reports distort our view of the world?
    d. In what respect would our ideas and attitudes be different if we did not have mass media?
    e. What is the role of the media in creating a universal fashion, common customs and an entertainment industry in different parts of the world?

7.2 Television and Film

1. Arrange for someone to explain to the class, preferably with illustrations, the technical aspects of television: camera, film, video-tape, telerecording, transmitter and home receiver. The difference between black and white and colour television should also be explained.

2. Make use of the following questions after the class has viewed a film or television programme:
    a. Were the facts presented clearly?
    b. What was the main point in the programme?

c. Did you see enough to understand the main facts?
d. Was the programme interesting? Why?
e. How could the programme be improved?
f. Did you change your mind about anything as a result of this programme?

3. Have students keep a television viewing diary for two weeks. Let them compare results with fellow students to determine the popular shows. Discuss how the class ratings compare with the official ratings.

4. Take a tape recorder and interview a number of people on why they watch television. Ask about their favourite shows and the reasons they watch them. Play back the best of these to the class.

5. Initiate a class project to inquire into and discover why so many people watch television and watch it so much.

6. As a medium of communication, television can be a very valuable tool in the English programme. It can be used in the development of speaking, listening, writing and reading skills.

7. Have the students make lists of words and expressions that have come into popular use as a result of their use on television.

8. Have the students write a 2 minute (about 300-350 words) programme promotion for a well-known television programme.

9. Have the students plan and write a 5-minute television script, including:
   a. News — 3 minutes
   b. Commercial — 1 minute
   c. Weather report — 30 seconds
   d. Public service announcement — 20 seconds
   e. Station identification — 10 seconds.

10. Tape a 16 mm commercial to a window. Analyse how many shots it includes. How many frames per shot are used? Consider its overall organisation: its length, timing, effects of different shots. As a follow-up activity, analyse a comic book in the same way. What are the noticeable differences?

11. After explaining the meaning of the long shot, medium shot and close-up, provide the students with photographs from magazines and direct them to draw frame lines on them to indicate a medium shot and a close-up. Then discuss the difference between a close-up and an extreme close-up.

12. Have groups of students monitor the evening television news on each channel. Direct them to list the news items in order of presentation and indicate the time given to each. On the following day consider these summaries in class and discuss any major differences.

13. Direct the students to watch the evening news on the various television networks. Arrange for the evening radio news to be taped. On the following day, play the radio news to the class and then compare and discuss the differences in the two accounts of the day's news. The following questions may be useful:
   a. Which was more comprehensive?
   b. Which was more convincing?
   c. Which was more interesting and entertaining?
   d. Which came closer to challenging or changing your previous attitudes?
   e. Which did you prefer as a news source?

   As a follow-up, this activity could be repeated, making use of the newspaper as well as the radio and television.

14. One of televisions greatest newsmen, Edward R. Murrow, stated as early as 1954 that even the news has to be somewhat entertaining. People watch television expecting entertainment, and they don't watch if it does not entertain them at least a little. Discuss in class.

15. Invite a news reporter from a local television station to your class and discuss the problems of televising news with him.

16. Conduct a basic comprehension exercise after the students have viewed a particular commercial. Some basic questions are:
   a. What is the product?
   b. What are you told about the product?
   c. What are you not told about the product?
   d. Was the commercial interesting?
   e. Would this advertisement mean anything if you could not hear?

17. Have students monitor some children's television programmes in early evening. Attention could be directed to these questions:
   a. How many advertisements are aired in one hour? What percentage of an hour is taken up with commercials?
   b. How many commercials have cartoon or other recognisable "characters" selling products?
   c. What techniques are used to sell products on children's programmes? To whom is the appeal directed?
   d. What categories of products are promoted?
   e. Were any of the commercials misleading or deceptive?

18. Some questions for class discussion:
   a. Do young children ask their parents to

buy products they see advertised on television?

b. Did you ever buy a product to get the free bonus gift inside? Were you satisfied?

c. Do you believe that certain products you see advertised on television make you happier, have more friends, etc.?

d. Did you ever feel "out of it" because your parents wouldn't buy a certain product you saw advertised?

e. Did you ever feel your parents were mean because they wouldn't buy the product you wanted? How do you feel about this now?

19. Assign the students to keep a list of the commercials during one hour of prime time television. Have the students identify the intended audience for each commercial. Discuss the results in class with the purpose of forming some generalizations.

20. Certain commercials are designed for specific audiences. Have the students suggest times and channels for the screening of commercials dealing with the following products: laundry soaps, sweet biscuits, cosmetics, house paints, toys, sweet cereals, soft drinks, petrol and sporting magazines. What are some products that could be profitably advertised at any time?

21. Commercials could be analysed to see if they serve the public interest. The following questions could help in this analysis:

a. What does the commercial prove?

b. What does it merely assert?

c. Does the commercial rely on emotional appeals?

d. Does the commercial make use of any pseudoscientific terms?

e. Does the commercial help the potential consumer?

22. The speed of a commercial, audio and visual, can be a decisive factor in the persuasiveness of a message. Direct the students to make a list of both high and low speed commercials. Some students could count the frames and others could count the words spoken. After this exercise, have the students discuss what they consider to be the most effective speed for a television commercial.

23. General techniques in advertising. Advertising content and approach will vary depending upon the audience the advertiser wishes to reach. But in general, the major approaches are: (1) Logical — Logical reasons are given for preference of the advertised product over other brands with emphasis on special ingredients, performance, unique qualities. (2) Creative — These advertisements appeal to the consumer who wants to be treated as an individual. (3) Testimonial — Product is used and endorsed by credible sources or celebrities. (4) Emotional — the Direction of the consumer's pride, attraction to the opposite sex, desire for status or belonging, variety, or to keep up with the neighbours. Direct the students to study a cross-section of commercials and to locate the approach used according to the above categories.

24. Many commercials make the consumer a specific promise — if you use this product you will get this benefit. Make a list of such commercials and discuss the promises.

25. Some commercials emphasise in what way a product is superior to all its competitive brands (e.g., cleaner, whiter, faster, more effective, more fun, bigger, etc.). Locate some examples and note the points of emphasis.

26. Questions for discussion:

a. What should be the role of advertising?

b. How informative should advertisements be?

c. Should advertising have a role in the solving of social problems? If so, what?

d. Does advertising aid *or* hinder consumers?

27. Have students make a list of public service advertisements. Discuss the effectiveness of this category of advertising.

28. An excellent way for students to discover what goes into a television commercial is for them to make one. This could take many forms. For a beginning, students could be shown how to prepare a storyboard of an imaginary product. (Some advertising agencies will make available storyboards and photoboards for study purposes.)

29. Provide an opportunity for the students to express their opinions on the following questions:

a. What is your opinion about advertising in general?

b. Where do you get information about new products?

c. Do you use advertising in any way? If so, how?

d. Do you feel you are influenced by advertising? If yes, how?

e. If you were creating an advertisement for a product, is there anything you would include in it which you don't find in advertisements now?

30. Have the students examine a television programme guide for one week. Then organise a discussion around the following questions:

a. Are the channels distinguishable from one another in the programming they offer?
b. Does any one channel show a willingness to experiment with new types of programmes?
c. Do the channels offer the viewers a sufficient variety of programmes?

31. As a term project the students could collect film reviews from newspapers and magazines. These could be pasted into a book. Students who see any of the films reviewed could add a note indicating if their experience supports the review.

32. Arrange a symposium in which each student listens critically to one of the following types of programmes:
a. A talk by a politician
b. A panel discussion
c. An interview
d. A news commentary.
Tell each student to listen for examples of the use of fact and opinion, rationalisation, inferences, emotional language, voice inflection and propaganda, techniques. Arrange for each student to present a summary of his findings to the class. Discuss the implications of the students' findings.

33. Have the students watch an episode of "Mission Impossible" or some other spy show and then discuss the following questions:
a. How does the spy force overcome the opposition?
b. Frequently in spy programmes someone is killed at the end, not directly by the spies, but as a result of their manipulations. Is the spy team morally responsible?
c. Does the spy group have a loyalty to each other?
d. What was the role of gadgetry in this episode?
e. Who is the hero in the show?

34. "The end justifies the means" is frequently the code of conduct for the heroes in the television spy dramas. Conventional morality is lightly put aside as these men go about their work. Discuss these programmes with the students in an attempt to evaluate the prevailing morality.

35. Have the students check the weekly television programme guide and then make two lists. In the first list, write the names of the police programmes and in the second, write the names of the detective/private-eye programmes. Discuss these questions in class:
a. What is the prime function of the police officer in the police shows?
b. What are some major difficulties between the programmes in these two columns?
c. What are the main differences between the television policeman and the policemen working in the cities in Australia?
d. What do these lists say about the television taste of Australians?
e. How do you account for the popularity of this kind of drama?

36. Have the students write character descriptions of a typical television policeman or detective as he might describe or advertise himself to prospective clients. Discuss these descriptions in class.

37. The Western today is primarily adult entertainment and the concept of the West has shifted from the struggle for law and order, to an established order threatened here and there by various evil forces. In a word, Western heroes have become conservative. Discuss this statement in class with reference to the Westerns the students are familiar with.

38. In the last two decades there has been a shift from programmes with an individual hero to programmes with the group as hero. Does this suggest anything about the popular belief in what can be done by the individual in our culture? Discuss.

39. Find out the favourite comedy-variety programme among the students of the class. Suggest they might watch a particular episode and then plan for a discussion in class. Some recommended questions are:
a. What function does the host serve in relation to the entire show?
b. How would you describe the overall mood of the show?
c. What themes seem to be treated most often in the sketches?
d. Towards which age group do you think the show is directed?
e. Why do people watch this show?

40. In experiments with children, it was discovered that they tended to watch faces and facial reactions rather than actions. In a gunfight, for example, they focus on the face of the person being menaced, rather than on the person doing the shooting. Discuss with the students why they suppose this happens.

41. Select several television series like "The FBI" or "Division 4" and ask the students to note all the things they know about an episode before they see it. Follow this activity with a discussion of the students' expectations for their favourite programmes.

42. Analyse some of the conventions of television according to the following categor-

ies: news and documentaries, police shows, sports, Westerns and situation comedies. Consider especially the standard formulas and stock characters that frequently recur on television. A follow-up discussion could centre on the function of convention in other areas of life; sports, cooking, school behaviour, dating and dress.

43. Have the students list some television characters with whom they identify. Then have them note what it is they like about each of these characters.

44. Have the students listen to a speech by a public figure and then use the following questions to aid the critical evaluation of the speech:
    a. Was the communication objective?
    b. Was the message clear?
    c. Was the speaker evasive when asked questions?
    d. Did he persuade his audience?
    e. What techniques did he use to gain audience approval?

45. Ask the students to study the television programme guide before coming to class to discuss the differences between commercial television and that offered by the A.B.C.

46. Australian television networks import many programmes from the United States and Europe. As a class project, groups could monitor evening television for 7 days and list the country of origin of each programme. Graphs could then be drawn to present a summary of these data.

47. Some discussion questions on imported television programmes:
    a. Why is so much of our prime time television imported?
    b. Do Australians prefer imported television?
    c. In what ways is imported television different from Australian-made television?
    d. Are there any dangers in airing a lot of imported programmes?
    e. Could our culture be affected in any way by foreign television?

48. Select a scene from a television play which requires about 4 characters. Distribute copies to groups of 5. The extra member will be the director. Give each group enough time to prepare a performance. Discuss the differences in interpretation.

49. Divide the class into television production teams. Ask each team to develop a 10-minute television programme, the purpose of which is to convince the school auxiliary that it should purchase a complete closed-circuit television unit for the school.

50. Direct the students to find out about the movie-rating system currently in use in Australia. Discuss the following questions:
    a. What is the purpose of these ratings?
    b. Are the categories helpful?
    c. Are any changes recommended?

51. Research some of the regulations issued to commercial television stations by the Australian Broadcasting Control Board. Are these regulations adequate?

52. Divide the class into groups to study the function of the Australian Broadcasting Commission and the Australian Broadcasting Control Board. Discuss the necessity of these bodies.

53. Have the students make a notice board display for an upcoming movie. Encourage them to collect all available promotional material. Finally, compare the promotion claims with the actual event.

54. The key to the success or failure of any television programme is the ratings it receives. In Australia, ratings are furnished by two companies. Watch the press for the publication of some of these ratings. Discuss these published ratings in terms of the viewing habits of the class. As a follow-up activity the class could design a rating form and conduct a survey.

55. Ask the students to list movies or television shows that follow these basic themes:
    a. Love conquers all
    b. Work hard and you will succeed
    c. Virtue is rewarded and evil is punished.

56. Much of the laughter heard on television comedy comes from a mechanical laugh track. Have students locate shows and cartoons which use the laugh track and then discuss the following questions:
    a. Why is a laugh track used on a comedy show?
    b. What does the use of a laugh track say about a comedy?

c. If the laugh track comes on loud enough, will it make the audience laugh no matter what is happening on the screen?

d. Do you ever get the feeling that you are being manipulated by the l a u g h machine?

e. What might be some long term effects of frequent e x p o s u r e to mechanical laughter?

57. Have someone tape record sections from two television shows, one with a live studio audience and one with a laugh track. Play the two recordings back to the class and see if they can detect which is live and which is manufactured and what the differences are.

58. Ask the students to watch a segment of a television dramatic show with the sound turned off. Have them describe their experiences and then discuss the importance of sound in television productions. As a follow-up activity have the students listen to some television without watching the screen. Discuss their reactions.

59. Discuss this statement: in radio, sound creates the vision; in television and film, sound supports the visual.

60. Draw students' attention to the fact that some images they see on television appear larger or smaller than actual size. Have them make two lists to illustrate this fact.

61. Discussion question. What is the effect on the viewer of frequent or abrupt changes in scale of the images on the television tube?

62. On a scale of 1 (very slow) to 10 (extremely fast) make a list of current movies, television programmes and commercials according to their pace. On the basis of these 3 lists discuss the following questions: How does the pace of a television programme relate to its popularity or audience appeal? Is there any correlation between the pace of a programme, commercial or film and the age of the intended audience? Does television pace say anything about the pace of life in general? What is the effect on the viewer of frequent or abrupt changes of pace in film or television?

63. Comparing the media. What happens to a movie when it is shown on television? What is the difference between seeing a movie in a theatre and then seeing it later on television? (Consider the following in your answer: size, colour, scale, continuity, setting and emotional reactions).

64. Have the students compare a popular television series and a movie they have seen. The following categories may help the comparison: location of screen, screen size, length of show, sound volume, personal involvement, feelings of excitement or suspense, the environment, interactions with others during performance and degrees of satisfaction. A class discussion on this exercise could lead to a generalisation of the similarities and differences between film and television.

65. The following questions may be helpful in the discussion of a film the class has seen:
   a. Did the film portray life realistically?
   b. If the film was meant to be a fantasy, how effectively was the material presented?
   c. What special effects were used to create an artistic production?
   d. Did the film leave the viewer with the concept of a unified whole?
   e. How good was the camera work, use of colour and musical score?

66. Direct the students to make a list of recommended television programmes in various categories such as news, drama, musical, variety, comedy and sports. Discuss this list, which might change from week to week, in light of the standards that have been agreed upon.

67. Provide the students with a simple rating scale, perhaps 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, and ask them to rate some of the programmes they watch regularly. The results of these ratings could be collated and graphs drawn. The results could provide rich material for a class discussion. Try to determine on what criteria the students are rating the programmes.

68. Plan for the class to discuss some of the families they see on television. Give some attention to the following questions:
   a. Is the television family's standard of living below average, average or above average?
   b. How do the parents treat each other?
   c. How do the children relate to their parents?
   d. What are the occupations of the family members?
   e. What are the family's outside interests?
   f. Does the television family have any real problems?

69. Use the questions below to help the students to understand better television's presentation of family life in a selected series:
   a. In what ways are the various members of the family depicted?
   b. What is the economic and social status of the family?

c. What kinds of problems confront the family?

d. What values do the members of the family treasure?

e. Is the presentation stereotyped? If so, in what ways?

70. Many television characters are best known by their first names. Have the students list 20 characters by their first names and then ask them to add surnames. What conclusions can be drawn from this exercise? What differences in naming patterns were observed between characters in police/detective programmes and those in family situation comedies?

71. Have each student make up a list of characters for what he would consider a realistic family life television show. Each character is to be given a suitable name and briefly described. Indicate the relationship of each character to the other characters in the cast. Some students may wish to suggest people to play the parts.

72. Discuss television's presentation of ethnic minority characters. How are these minority characters presented?
Is their television image positive? Are they too frequently presented in criminal or negative roles? Do you think the television image of minority groups affects their popular image in the minds of most Australians?

73. Have the students list 10 ethnic stereotypes which are popular on film and television. Discuss the source of these stereotypes and ask the students to compare the stereotypes with persons they may know from each of these ethnic groups.

74. Help the students work towards the production of a set of guidelines for the evaluation of film and television.

75. Set the students to find out who owns the city's commercial television station(s). What else do they own?

76. Have the students create some hand-drawn films using felt pens or grease pencils on clear 16 mm leader. Before they begin they will need to know two facts: (1) that 16 mm is projected at 24 frames per second and (2) that the sprocket holes on the clear leader define the frame-lines for the individual pictures that make up film's moving images. Plan to project the hand-drawn films as soon as the students have finished working. Suitable music will add to this presentation. When the students have finished with the film it can be cleaned with household bleach and re-used.

77. Overhead projectors can be used to:

a. Make a puppet show by cutting out silhouettes and moving them about on the projector.

b. Make a light show by experimenting with some food colouring, oil and water in a clear glass bowl on top of the projector.

c. Make a simple hand-drawn movie, using felt pens on the clear acetate roll.

78. Involve the students in slide-making without cameras. Use can be made of felt pens, glue and any sort of translucent material. The finished slides could be mounted in inexpensive slide mounts and screened for the class.

79. Discarded 16 mm film can be used to provide the students with film-making experience. If it is a black and white film, the students can colour it and add various tinting effects. By scraping away some of the emulsion, they can alter the film and some interesting effects can be achieved by bleaching off portions of the emulsion.

80. Have the students develop a suitable theme for a class movie. The sequences and acting would need to be carefully planned. The film could be shot using Super 8 film. An alternative would be to make the film, using a regular camera, and to mount the developed photographs on a storyboard.

81. Direct the students to make a list of television programmes which are seeking something more than entertainment. Have them include their reasons for watching these programmes.

82. Discuss the following statement: "Every minute of television programming — commercials, entertainments, news — teaches us something" (Nicholas Johnson).

83. Consider the following question in class: What is the role of television in spreading knowledge and understanding of different countries and in the dissemination of fashion and customs?

84. Divide the class into groups to discuss the following question: To whom and to what level of intelligence are the greatest number of programmes directed? Why?

85. Discuss in class the kinds of information every citizen should have and how this information should be obtained.

86. Frequently, the bad news on television is followed by the good news contained in commercials and the viewer is faced with two visions of life conflicting one with the other. Have the students look for examples of inadvertent juxtaposition and then discuss what this says about the seriousness with which Australians take televised news.

87. Have the students discuss the following ques-

tion: If you had to give up all your "entertainment machines" and communication media, but one, which one would you keep?

88. Discuss: Repetition and reinforcement are basic techniques in brainwashing. Is it ethical, then, to deliberately employ these devices in a political or advertising campaign? To what extent do they reduce the freedom of the audience?

89. The complex interaction between the media and the culture makes them almost inseparable. Yet, media can tell us a great deal about the culture of any age. Like the tombs of the Pharoahs of Egypt, which give us glimpses of what the society was like, contemporary media will give future generations a picture of our society. But how accurate will this picture be? Discuss.

90. Have the class debate the following question: Do the popular television shows reflect what most of us value? Or do they actually educate us in what we should value?

7.3 Radio

1. Ask the students to see how many frequencies they can tune into on their radios. List them by station number and call letters. Indicate which stations have the clearest signals and which are coming from farthest away.

2. Direct the students to listen to the type of programmes being broadcast from each station at a given time. This can be done by slowly moving the tuning dial across the radio. Have the students list what they hear on each station. Repeat the exercise at different times on different days. The results could be compared and some generalisations should emerge.

3. Tune the radio to a news bulletin and direct the students to note all the details of the first couple of items mentioned. The radio could then be switched off and an intensive comprehension could follow. If the material is suitable, a written expression exercise might profitably follow.

4. Play a news broadcast to the class and have each student make a list of the items mentioned. After the broadcast discuss the order in which the items were presented. Finally, ask the students to rank the same items according to their perception of importance. Compare the results.

5. Some more questions to help students analyse news broadcasts:
   a. Did the broadcast clearly separate fact from opinion?
   b. Were stories with emotional undertones read appropriately?
   c. Were the most important stories placed at the beginning of the broadcast?
   d. Were any significant stories omitted?
   e. Did the broadcast leave any relevant questions unanswered?

6. After the class has listened to a news broadcast ask the following questions:
   a. Was the news well balanced?
   b. Was it presented objectively?
   c. Was it presented sincerely?
   d. Was anything of importance omitted?
   e. Did the news reader speak with the voice of authority?

7. Discuss why we need news reports and what they should contain.

8. Tape the major stories on the morning radio news. After playing these to the class, study the same stories in the newspaper. Compare and discuss the differences in the two accounts of the news. The following questions may be useful:
   a. Which contained the latest news?
   b. Which was the more comprehensive?
   c. Which was the more convincing?
   d. Which did you prefer as a source of news?
   e. What advantages does the radio have over press and television as a source of news?

9. Arrange for the students to monitor each of the available radio stations. Have them describe the format of each station in a couple of sentences. Share these descriptions and then initiate a discussion around the following questions:
   a. Which section of the community is best served by radio?
   b. Are any sections of the community neglected by radio? If so, why?

10. Choose a radio station within your normal listening area and analyse it critically using these questions as a guide:
    a. What is radio's purpose?
    b. What is this particular station doing?

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c. What else would you like this station to offer?

11. Involve the students in a comparative study of two radio stations with which they are familiar. The following categories could be useful:
    a. Number of records each hour
    b. Style and variety of music
    c. Role of the disc jockey
    d. Placement and kind of commercials
    e. News coverage.

12. Arrange for the students to monitor an hour of a local Top 40 radio station. Have them make notes of the programming: what kinds of music are played at all times during the hour, when the news is broadcast, when the commercials are played, and so on. Each student could present a summary of his observations on a pie or circle graph.

13. List the following subject on the blackboard and then ask the students to give lyrics from popular songs which express young people's attitudes toward the subject:
    a. Friendship
    b. Love
    c. Being a good person
    d. Kindness
    e. Ways to face trouble.

14. Have students select a singer who is noted for singing personal songs. Let them make a list of the songs he has recorded and perhaps a brief summary of what the song is about. Discuss the summaries in class.

15. Organise a discussion around the following questions:
    What "sound" is currently popular on Top 40 radio? Describe its characteristics. Who created this sound; in other words, who originated it? Who imitated it? Which recording artists do you consider to be originators and which, mere formula followers?

16. Make a list on the blackboard of all the musical styles known to the students. Discuss the characteristics of each and then have the students identify groups which play each style.

17. Take a song that has been recorded by several artists. Collect all the recordings and play them for the class. Have the class determine which is the best rendition.

18. Have the students write the lyrics to a song. For simplicity's sake, assume the song is a folk song to be sung to guitar accompaniment.

19. Ask each student to select a musical instrument and then list the names of artists who perform well on it.

20. Have small groups of students prepare 30-minute music programmes for a radio station. The students will need to select a theme, choose the records, plan the narrative and write the commercials. Over a period these programmes could be presented to the class. In a follow-up discussion direct the students' attention to the criteria for evaluating music programmes.

21. After the class has heard a radio commercial, ask the following basic questions:
    a. What was the product advertised?
    b. What were you told about the product?
    c. What are you not told about the product?
    d. Was the commercial interesting?
    e. Would this product be better suited to commercials on television?

22. Have the students make a list of the products advertised during one hour on their favourite radio station. What does the list say about the audience the advertisers expect to listen to the station at this time?

23. Ask each student in the class to do a comparative study of two radio stations based on the following questions:
    a. How many commercials in one hour?
    b. Were the commercials done one at a time or in clusters?
    c. How long was each commercial?
    d. Which station proved to be more effective in its presentation of commercials and why?

24. Have the students keep an advertising journal for just one day. Ask them to list all the advertising to which they were exposed. Discuss the findings.

25. Lead the students to examine the following list of reasons for advertising:
    a. to inform
    b. to sell
    c. to shape people's behaviour
    d. to form opinions
    e. to cause people to act
    f. to change habits
    g. to motivate
    h. to influence.

    After studying this list have students list examples of each of the above reasons for advertising and invite them to add to the list of reasons.

26. Have students develop a list of reasons for buying. Determine whether or not selection is based on advertising; and, if so, what type.

27. Have students identify some product themes and slogans.

Then ask the question: What is the motive behind the choice of a theme and slogan?

28. Have students design advertisements suitable for radio presentation. These advertisements could be presented to the class verbally.

29. Using the same product each time write 4 radio commercials to fit the following time slots:
    a. 60 seconds
    b. 30 seconds
    c. 20 seconds
    d. 10 seconds.

30. Have a group of students write and produce a radio commercial using two or more participants. Play the tape to the class.

31. Have the students make comparisons between the hard and soft sell advertisement. Discuss the effectiveness of each type.

32. Make a collection of advertisements of products of questionable value. The following categories may be helpful: "new" or "wonder" cures, new "scientific discoveries," special "introductory" prices, nutritional claims, improvement in quality. Discuss the effectiveness of this type of advertising.

33. Arrange a class discussion on the differences between the people the students hear in advertisements and people in the real world.

34. Human behaviour can be affected by advertising which seeks to influence values. Consider the following statements in class:
    a. The buying habits of the public are affected as a result of advertisers' appeals to people.
    b. Moral attitudes are influenced through deliberate sexual appeals built into advertisements.

35. The radio is another medium of communication that can be a valuable tool in any English programme. Radio can be used to assist in the development of listening skills and can be correlated with work in oral and written expression.

36. Have all the students in the class write a 1-minute (150-180 words) radio news report on an event they have all witnessed. Circulate these reports among the class and then discuss the following questions:
    a. Would a stranger reading these reports immediately realise that they were all describing the same event?
    b. What were some of the major differences in the written reports?
    c. Can you think of ways of eliminating subjectivity from news reporting?

37. Have groups in the class prepare a news programme announcing a particular event from a previous decade. The event could be social or political, e.g., advent of the motor car, 1914-1918 war, a new fashion.

38. Divide the class into groups and have each class prepare a 5-minute news programme, complete with weather and a couple of commercials.

39. Have the students make a news programme with a tape recorder or a portable television camera. They could use an on-the-spot reporter to interview students and staff and to analyse the events of the past week. The finished programme could be played to the class. After the task is completed, the following questions could be profitably discussed:
    a. Does the presence of a tape recorder or camera at an event alter the event itself?
    b. How do you achieve objectivity in reporting? Is it possible?
    c. Were the interests and values of the reporter very obvious?

40. Have the students write a brief description for publication in a newcomer's guidebook of the radio available in the area.

41. The following is suggested for use in a unit on critical listening of radio:
    a. Was the programme worth broadcasting?
    b. What was the general purpose of the programme? (To inspire? To instruct? To entertain? To amuse? To satisfy a need?)
    c. What were the underlying motives in the presentation?
    (To sell something? To build good will? To influence behaviour? To influence thinking?)
    d. Did the programme enrich our lives?
    e. How satisfying was the programme?

42. Assist the students to build up a list of the marks of a discriminating radio listener.

43. Establish criteria for the critical judgement of radio as an art form. The following questions are recommended to begin the discussion:
    a. What types of music are played?
    b. What is the station's attitude toward news?
    c. Do the commercials clash with the general format of the station's programmes?
    d. Do the commercials fit the audience being played for?
    e. How much variety is there in the programming?

44. Arrange for some interested students to research the advantages of FM and AM radio

frequencies. These research findings could be discussed in class.

45. Have the students discuss the special needs radio serves.

46. Discuss the function of radio in Australia?

47. Set the students to find out who owns the city's commercial radio station(s). What else do they own?

48. Have groups in the class study the advantages and limitations of the different mass media. Then, have students consider why a country needs different media.

49. Have the students study the means of communicating a message through various media. Examine alternatives for expressing various ideas and consider what a visual presentation can add to a verbal expression.

50. Discuss the following question: What kinds of things should all the people in the world know about?

51. Have each student estimate what percentage of his new information he gets from the mass media each day. Calculate a class average and then discuss the findings.

52. Arrange a class discussion on the role of the mass media in preserving peace in the world.

53. Discuss this statement in class: "In an electric information environment, minority groups can no longer be contained — ignored. Too many people know too much about each other. Our new environment compels commitment and participation. We have become irrevocably involved with each other, and responsible for each other." (Marshall McLuhan).

54. An overall evaluation of radio stations would be a useful exercise for senior students. The following questions could serve as guidelines:
    a. Does the station provide a well-rounded programme of entertainment?
    b. Does the station serve the public?
    c. Does the station encourage discussion of controversial issues?
    d. Is the community represented on the station's board?
    e. Are the intellectual interests of the community being served?

55. Involve the students in a discussion on the following viewpoints on the mass media:
    a. I believe that my thinking and my behaviour are strongly influenced by the mass media. Because of this dramatic impact, I believe that some controls on the the media are necessary to insure that they do not misrepresent our culture or become a destructive influence on the behaviour of citizens.
    b. I believe that the mass media are only some among many influences on my thinking and behaviour. I am personally responsible and can evaluate that influence. I can live agreeably in a society that does not place controls on its media.

8.0 Guidelines for Evaluation of Television, Film, Press and Radio

Standard	Desirable — If . . .	Undesirable — If . . .
1. Does it appeal to age level of audience?	It gives information and/or entertainment related to real life situations or interests.	It is dull, boring, not related to experience or interests.
2. Does it meet needs for entertainment and action?	It deals with wholesome adventure, humour, fantasy, or suspense.	It is emotionally disturbing and overstimulating; places unnecessary emphasis on cruelty and violence; is loud, crude, or vulgar.
3. Does it add to one's understanding and appreciation of himself, others, the world?	It is sincere, constructive, informative; gives a balanced picture of life; encourages decent human relations; is fair to races, nations, religions, labour, management.	It is one-sided, or propagandist; arouses or intensifies prejudice; takes advantage of immaturity and lack of knowledge.
4. Does it encourage worthwhile ideals, values, and beliefs (concerning such matters as family life)?	It upholds acceptable standards of behaviour; promotes democratic and spiritual values, respect for law, decency, service.	It glamorizes crime, indecency, intolerance, greed, cruelty, encourages bad taste, false standards of material success, personal vanity, intemperance, immorality.
5. Does it stimulate constructive activities?	It promotes interests, skills, hobbies; encourages desire to learn more, to do something constructive, to be creative, to solve problems, to work and to live with others.	It gives details of crime and its detection; solves problems by force or miraculous incident; leaves one a passive spectator on the sidelines.
6. Does it have artistic qualities?	It is a skilful production as to music, script, acting, direction, art work, color, settings, sound effects, printing, photography.	It is poorly done, confusing, hard to follow, action is too fast, too slow; sound is too loud, too low; it hurts the eyes; is poor art work.
7. Is the language used suitable?	The language is correct, suited to its subject; right for age level.	It uses vocabulary that is too hard or too easy; poor grammar; or language of the underworld.
8. Is the over-all effect likely to be desirable?	It has a positive effect; gives larger understanding of the world; helps one become a happier, more informed, more useful, more responsible, more interesting person.	It has a negative or zero effect; discourages living in real world; encourages one to be more dependent, fearful, or insecure; leaves one where he was before, or pushes him back.

Taken from USING MASS MEDIA IN THE SCHOOLS, W. D. Boutwell (Ed.)
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